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BEAM PROPAGATION EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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A program of extensively diagnosed experiments to investigate the physics of intense relativistic electron beam propagation in air has been performed using beam generators at the Air Force Weapons Laboratory. The primary objectives of this research were to measure the rate of erosion of the head of the beam, and to investigate resistive instabilities, such as the hose and hollowing modes, that limit the transport of beam energy over significant distances.		

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The first year tasks of delineating the pressure range for maximum energy transport and measuring the temporal evolution of the current density profile were accomplished on the FX-100 and FX-25 accelerators. Maximum energy transport (measured calorimetrically) of the FX-100 beam (~1.5 MeV, ~40 kA, 120 ns) occurred at 0.3-0.5-Torr air pressure. This air-pressure window for maximum energy transport was defined by loss of the tail of the beam at high pressures and by erosion of the beam head at low pressures. Propagation in the window was characterized by a high degree of current neutralization (~80% or more), by intense light emission, suggestive of strong avalanche breakdown, and by the onset of a virulent hollowing instability that resulted in as much as 80% of the beam current being carried in a thin annular shell at a radius about twice the Bennett radius characterizing the initially injected current distribution. Space- and time-resolved measurements of the current distribution with a fast-risetime subminiature charge collector array showed that the thin-shell hollowing instability developed late (~20 ns or more) into the beam pulse. Spectroscopic measurements of the visible emission suggest that the air nearthe axis of the beam may have been hotter and more highly ionized in this pressure regime, which may have resulted in a conductivity profile more centrally concentrated than that of the beam.

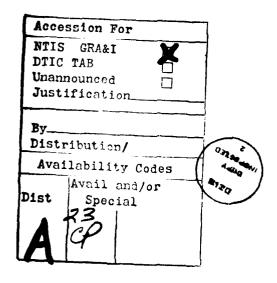
The second year tasks of investigating nose erosion and the hose instability were performed on the 1 MeV, 25 kA VISHNU accelerator. A low pressure beam preparation (conditioning) cell was used to reduce the level of transverse beam perturbations. Best operation (lowest transverse displacement) was found at 0.7 Torr and in this mode, propagation of a 5-6 kA beam was studied. Beam characterization measurements showed that the 1.0 cm radius beam propagated in a well-confined pinch over the first 25 cm. Plasma monopole decay times over this distance were measured and peak decay times were found to be in the range 20-90 nanoseconds over the pressure range 630-5 Torr. Nose erosion was measured and was found to be extremely nonuniform. Beam front velocities were found to be as low as  $\sim 0.30 \text{ v}$  ( $\text{v} \approx 0.9 \text{ c}$  is the electron streaming velocity) were observed over the first 50 cm with velocities increasing up to 0.85 v over a 1.3 m propagation distance.

Hose instability measurements on the beam indicated that both frequencies and growth rates were in good agreement with present models. A correlation between hose frequency and measured dipole decay time was found as f  $\sim 0.14/\tau_D$  where  $\tau_D$  was the measured dipole decay time. Measurements also indicate that over  $\sim 1.5$  m propagation distance the beam nose can become unstable resulting in zero energy propagation.

Simulations performed at 630 Torr showed good agreement with experiments.

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

The authors would like to thank Tom Montoya for careful and patient work in setup and operation of the experiments. The experiments would not have been possible without the continuous cooperation and support of AFWL personnel including M. C. Clark, J. Clifford, D. C. Straw, and R. L. Copeland. We also thank R. B. Miller and M. G. Mazzarakis for useful discussions. Finally, we thank Sid Putnam for his continuous advice on beam characterization.



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### **EXECUTIVE SUMMARY**

Directed energy weapons have the potential to revolutionize modern warfare and greatly affect national defense policies. The application of high-energy particle beams as directed energy weapons is particularly promising because of their ability to penetrate targets. The realization of this concept is dependent on the solution of major technical issues in the areas of pulse power, particle accelerators and beam-target interactions. These technical problems can probably be overcome with the expenditure of sufficient technical effort.

The physics of beam propagation may, however, prevent delivery of sufficient energy over the distances required to make beams practical as Endoatmospheric propagation remains a key issue that may not yield to a massive research effort. Basic physics questions about the growth rates and nature of instabilities encountered during beam pulse transmission through the atmosphere remain unresolved. The complexity of beam propagation physics and air chemistry makes the prediction of beam Theoretical analysis has used broad assumptions behavior difficult. regarding the beam current distribution and plasma channel evolution and equilibrium in order to make the problem more tractable.<sup>2-5</sup> Clearly, the issue of propagation will not be fully resolved until full-scale experiments with accelerators having weapons-grade parameters are performed. It is also clear that one cannot wait for the advent of such experiments, because beam propagation will have a significant role in determining the optimal weapon accelerator parameters. It is desirable, therefore, to address the scaling of propagation phenomena with beam parameters by conducting experiments using presently available accelerators.

With this goal in mind, Mission Research Corporation has performed a detailed study of beam propagation phenomena. In our two year study, we have investigated a variety of significant propagation phenomena, including

the hose $^2$ ,  $^3$  and hollowing effects, $^4$ , $^5$  net energy transport, plasma response to the electron beam, evolution of the beam nose, $^6$  time dependent plasma optical emission, beam conditioning, and beam RF emission. $^7$  Particular emphasis has been placed on the effect of beam nose evolution on the hose instability, and the effect of this interaction on general propagation physics. First year studies were performed on the FX-100 and FX-25 accelerators. When both of these machines were removed, experiments continued on the VISHNU accelerator once it became operational.

Diagnostics and equipment used during the experiment are outlined in Sec. I. New diagnostics and techniques implemented include radial 'penny probes' for beam front velocity determination, miniature Faraday cup arrays for time-resolved beam profile measurements, a triangle detector to monitor beam hollowing and hose behavior, and a technique to infer plasma current decay rates.

First year experiments addressed fundamentals such as propagation windows, beam profile evolution, and optical emission. The second year experiments concentrated on propagation in a large diameter cell, and included the fast-rise and nose-coupled hose instability experiments. In November, experiments using the 4.5 cm conditioning cell began, and detailed hose, plasma decay time, radial probe, and nose-hose experiments continued (often in two shifts) until the end of February 1983.

The first task performed was determination of the stable propagation pressure window of the FX-100 electron beam. In general, the window was found between 0.3 and 0.6 Torr in air for a 3 m propagation distance. This result is in good agreement with the accepted phenomenology of beam propagation. At very low pressures, the beam front velocity is limited by the rate at which the gas can be ionized. The first portion of the beam is lost due to radial electric fields, reducing the transported beam energy. Above 0.6 Torr, particle loss occurs due to the resistive hose instability,

and possibly a hollowing instability late in time. While the hose instability is a definite cause of energy loss, the hollowing effect appears to produce a hollow but stable beam with an outer current shell.

Beam distribution evolution was studied using the FX-25. At the anode foil the beam distribution was found to be well defined with a sharp outer cutoff. Both anode foil scattering (16° RMS) and phase mixing contributed to the beam evolution to a 1 cm radius Bennett profile at 3 m from the diode. The difference in the propagation window pressure between the various experiments is noteworthy—for the FX-25 beam in a 5 cm drift tube the pressure was 1.6 Torr, for the FX-100 it was 0.5 Torr, and for VISHNU it was 1.0 Torr—approximately inversely proportional to pulse length. The FX-100 and FX-25 data are presented in Appendix A.

The initial set of VISHNU experiments (Sec. II) investigated propagation in a large cell after conditioning in a smaller drift tube. Energy transport measurements were made to define the propagation window, and the nose-coupled hose effect was observed. Observation of this effect was made with Faraday cups, calorimetry, and open shutter photography. Further measurements also demonstrated the deleterious effect of beam mismatch on the injection process.

Nose erosion studies were performed as a necessary adjunct to the nose-hose coupling studies. The beam front velocity was measured and was found to be spatially nonuniform—low near the injection point, and increasing to near the beam velocity as propagation continued. This effect contributes to one of the more important effects we observed—a 1 ns beam risetime. Our present understanding is that the onset of the fast beam front propagation can be exceedingly rapid, leading to fast beam rise times.

After the initial survey, a detailed set of runs was made with a 'conditioned' electron beam. A total of approximately 20 kA was injected into a small tube which acted to center the beam. Phase mixing resulted in damping of transverse motion, and particle losses resulted in a final current of approximately 5 kA. The optimum point for conditioning cell operation was found to be approximately 0.70 Torr. This value of conditioning cell pressure was used almost exclusively for subsequent experiments.

The initial beam state was characterized in several ways at an axial position 25 cm beyond the end of the conditioning cell. In particular, the radial profile was measured using a 7-port Faraday cup array, and detailed plasma decay time measurements were performed. The Faraday cup data exhibited hose-type motion for higher pressures. These measurements are presented in Sec. III. In general, the beam has a 1 cm radius Bennett-type profile at this axial position.

Measurements of beam hose growth using B probes were made with the same beam parameters as the characterization measurements (Sec. IV). These measurements are in good qualitative agreement with present hose theories. The hose oscillation frequency is observed to decrease with time into the pulse, consistent with the observed increase in decay time. It varies from 15 MHz or less for 10 Torr to of order 100 MHz in the body of a 230 Torr shot. Typical hose instability growth lengths are found to be approximately 15 cm at 10-20 Torr. Note that the betatron wavelength was approximately 10-15 cm for our parameters. Faraday cup array displacements were also consistent with < 1 cm displacements at an axial position of 25 cm-within a factor of two of the magnetic probe data results. An important hose parameter—the relative motion of the beam and magnetic axes—has also been observed.

Studies of this beam after injection into the large propagation tank are also is discussed in Sec. IV. A novel 'triangular' detector was used to measure beam parameters—both the hollowing and hose effects were

observed using this diagnostic. The hollowing and hose instabilities were sometimes observed simultaneously below 100 Torr. Beam nose evolution was also studied in detail in this configuration. After 1.2 m of propagation, beam head transverse motion is severe and the beam is considered to be nose-hose unstable. The time duration of the beam head on the detector decreased with axial position, demonstrating the development of the hose-hose effects due to erosion.

Several other measurement series were performed. Radial electron collector results indicate the existence of an unexplained radial current loss. Potentially, the most important result of the study is the observation of hose stable beam propagation in full pressure air for a rotating beam.

Other topics are discussed in the appendices, including the FX-100 experiments, channel temperature measurements, considerations for design of a transverse beam perturbation device or "tickler", beam dynamics in the small Faraday cup collectors, and optical diagnostics considerations.

In general, we conclude that at least one nose-hose coupling effect exists. It is found to be associated with slow propagation near the beam injection point. This results in matching of the nose velocity and the hose convection velocity. Transverse position monitor measurements indicate that the hose instability frequency is in agreement with the usual models  $^2$  in the body of the beam. We find that  $f = .13 \tau_d$  where f is the hose frequency, and  $\tau_d$  is the dipole decay time.

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### I. FACILITIES AND DIAGNOSTICS

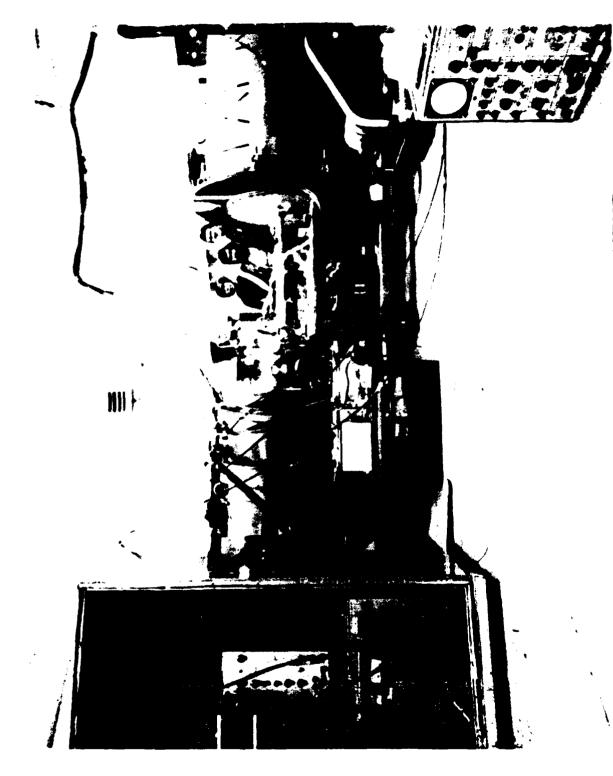
### A. FACILITIES

The VISHNU Accelerator is a reconditioned Physics International Pulserad 415 flash X-radiography accelerator. From the 1960's until 1976, it was used for various pulsed high voltage projects such as Kerr optical effect measurements, and ion diode design studies. In early 1981, the decision to reactivate the machine for intense electron beam vacuum propagation studes was made.

The diode, main switch and insulator were lost during the storage period, so a new diode was designed by R. Adler of MRC and H. Ives, then of AFWL. J. Thorne of AFWL took charge of turning building 910 from a storage area into a laboratory facility. In the spring of 1982, R. Copeland of AFWL reconfigured the Marx generator and designed a new trigger system for the accelerator. Successful operation of the accelerator began in June of 1982 when the inner transmission line was hung from nylon rods. Diode diagnostics were implemented that same month by R. Adler and G. Kiuttu of MRC. Diode prepulse, the last remaining difficulty in machine operation, was eliminated using shunt resistors in July of 1982.

The first experiments using the rebuilt accelerator were performed by R. Adler, G. Kiuttu, and B. Sabol in the area of rotating beam propagation. These experiments ended in September when hardware for the large propagation chamber, which was designed in June, became available and AFOSR supported propagation experiments began.

A photograph of the machine front end and the large propagation cell is shown in Fig. 1.



# VISHNU PROPAGATION EXPERIMENT

The accelerator front end is shown on the left with the large propagation cell on the right. The conditioning cell and experimental team (except Gerry Kiuttu who took the picture) are shown in the center. Figure 1.

### i) VISHNU

Typical VISHNU voltage and current waveforms are shown in Fig. 2. The diode impedance of 30-40  $\Omega$  was much greater than the 10  $\Omega$  line impedance resulting in a step-type exponential voltage characteristic for t > 40 ns. Reproducibility was excellent for the first 75 nanoseconds of the pulse as shown for the 8-shot diode voltage overlay of Fig. 3. (Note that the jitter later in the pulse is due to diode flashover, which was usually corrected by cleaning the diode as in the shot of Fig. 2.)

The machine prepulse voltage was negligible due to the implementation of resistors shunting the diode capacitance. The machine operated without serious breakdowns during the experimental run. Routine maintenance consisted of cleaning the diode insulator approximately once every 100 shots. The diode vacuum was typically maintained below  $10^{-4}$  Torr.

A schematic of the electron beam diode is shown in Fig. 4. A 3.1 cm diameter flat carbon disc was used as the cathode and centered to within 1 mm using a ball joint 30 cm back along the shank. Kapton foils coated with Aerodag were used for the anode. Later in the experiments, the foil changer shown in Fig. 4 was implemented. Thus, foils destroyed by beam damage could be replaced rapidly. The foil changer works reliably, and is perhaps one of the least expensive (\$800 including design, machining, materials, welding and personnel salaries and overhead) ever built.

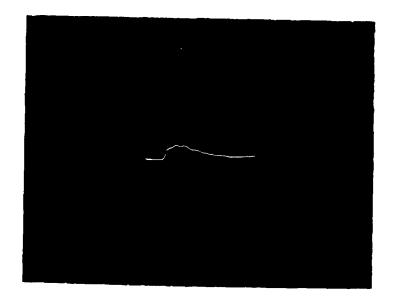
### ii) Large Propagation Cell

The large cell was 2.2 m in length, 1.2 m in diameter, and had a 15 cm wide lucite window along the side. This window was covered with screen to make the electrical path complete. It was connected to a 10 cm radius drift tube preceded by either a 4.5 cm I.D. conditioning cell, or further 10 cm radius tubes and could be evacuated to as low as 0.060 Torr with available pumping. It is shown on the right hand side of Fig. 1.

DIODE VOLTAGE 1.2 MV/cm



DIODE CURRENT 53 ka/cm



80 ns/cm

Figure 2. Typical VISHNU diode voltage and current waveforms.

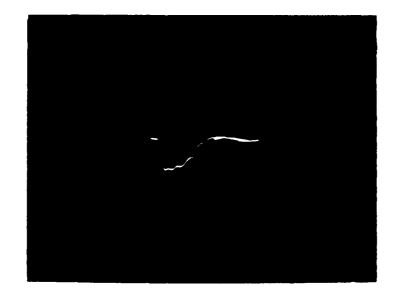


Figure 3. 8 shot overlay of VISHNU diode voltage.

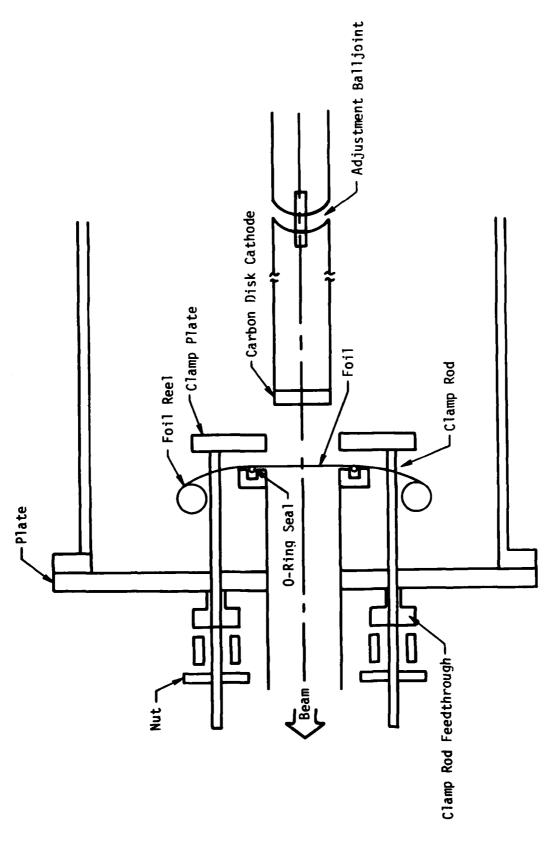


Figure 4. VISHNU diode showing the foil changer - the beam propagates to the left.

### B. DIAGNOSTICS

### i) Data Acquisition

VISHNU is located in AFWL building 910, more than 100 feet from the main facility in building 909. Signals from the experimental area propagate via RG-214 cable and are acquired on Tektronics 7700 and 7900 series oscilloscopes in the main screen room in building 909. Due to the long cable run, signals are limited to 2 nanosecond risetimes. In some phases of the experiments, faster oscilloscope rise times were required. When necessary, Tektronix 519 oscilloscopes were placed in a shielded enclosure within 3 m of the diode, resulting in a system risetime of < 0.5 nanoseconds.

The oscilloscopes were supplied by AFWL and numbered no less than 8 at any time. Signals were recorded on Polaroid Type 612 film at a typical sweep speed of 20 nanoseconds/division. Waveforms of particular interest were digitized on the AFWL PDP11/60 computer system and could be further processed by the computer. The diode voltage was recorded on all shots with allocation of the other channels dependent on the particular experiment.

### ii) Machine Diagnostics

The machine output characteristics were measured with resistive and capacitive voltage monitors,  $B_{\theta}$  field loops in the diode, and a resistive voltage monitor at the output of the Marx Generator.

The resistive monitors are simply  ${\rm CuSO_4/H_2O}$  solution resistive dividers of the standard Sandia National Laboratories design.<sup>8</sup> The virtue of these monitors is that the resistive ratio remains fixed even if the solution resistivity changes. The capacitive monitor operated in 'V-dot' mode, (i.e., the RC time constant of the probe was much less than 1 nanosecond) so the monitor output represented the derivative of the diode voltage.

Capacitive monitor signals were then integrated using a passive RC network to produce a voltage waveform. The resistive and capacitive voltage monitor signals agreed very well.

### iii) Inductive Current Shunts

One of our primary research objectives is a study of the beam-head erosion<sup>6</sup> process, which can lead to rapid net-current risetimes in the drift tube. For these measurements we designed and constructed inductive net-current detectors that had substantially faster response times than the available Rogowski loops.

The inductive-shunt current monitors consisted of epoxy-filled annular channels machined in an Aluminum flange that was inserted between two sections of the drift tube. As can be seen in Fig. 5, the return current flowing on the drift-tube inner surface was forced to flow around the inside surface of the annular channel. A voltage was thus induced across the insulating gap by the time-varying magnetic field in the annular channel. In the limit of time-scales short compared with the magnetic diffusion time into the Alumiunum shunt, the voltage appearing around the channel is purely inductive and can be detected by completing a flux loop as shown in Fig. 5. The inductive component of the voltage that appears at the pick-up point is given by:

$$V = -\frac{d\phi}{dt} = -\mu_0 \frac{dI}{dt} \int \frac{drdz}{r} , \qquad (1)$$

Substituting the inductance, L, for the shunt geometry into this equation gives

$$V = -\frac{\mu_0 W}{2\pi} \ln \frac{r_0}{r_i} \frac{dI}{dt} , \qquad (2)$$

where  $r_0$  is the outer radius of the channel,  $r_i$ , is the inner radius, and w is the flux loop axial length.

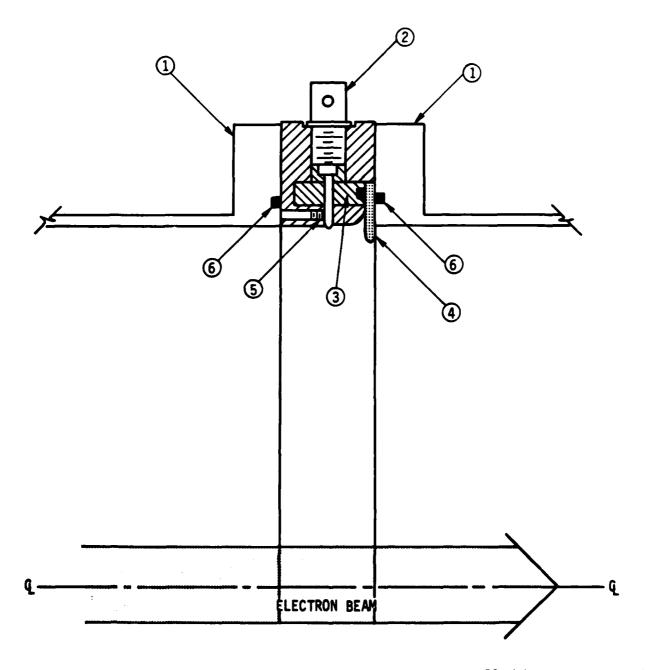


Figure 5. Fast-risetime inductive-shunt current monitor installed between two sections of drift tube (1). (2) is the BNC signal-output. (3) is the epoxy filled annular channel. (4) is the polyethylene insulating gasket. (5) is the set screw to provide electrical contact for the detector pin. (6) are '0' ring vacuum seals.

An advantage of this type of current monitor is that it provides a simple penetration of the conducting drift tube that results in a well-shielded coaxial signal-transmission geometry. In addition, the narrow insulating gap is a wave guide beyond cutoff for low-frequency modes other than the TEM mode that is excited by the time-varying axial current, and thus provides shielding from unwanted electromagnetic noise. Furthermore, although a single voltage pickup is sufficient for an azimuthally symmetric system such as a coaxial transmission line, asymmetric current channels can be accurately measured by summing the signals from several voltage pick-ups separated by equal increments of angle. In this respect, the inductive-shunt monitor can be thought of as the well-shielded limit of a Rogowski belt current monitor. Finally, the achievable risetime of an inductive-shunt monitor is substantially faster than for a Rogowski coil because the output signals are summed in parallel rather than in series, thus significantly reducing the inductance and L/R risetime.

These net current monitors were positioned at various axial positions during the different phases of the program. They provided reliable, low-noise measurements of the net current in the drift tube.

### iv) Subminiature Faraday Cup Array

An array of fast-response Faraday charge collectors was developed to measure the time-resolved current distribution. The data from this array provided a picture of the evolution of the radial current profile at a particular axial location without relying on shot-to-shot reproducibility. Each detector in the array consisted of a length of Uniform Tubes Co. UT-47 rigid coaxial transmission line that was embedded in a massive graphite block, as shown in Fig. 6. The initial radial spacing of the detectors was chosen to be 1.25 cm. However, our early discovery of significant beam current carried outside of the Bennett radius caused us to modify the array by increasing the detector density at large radii. The collectors were

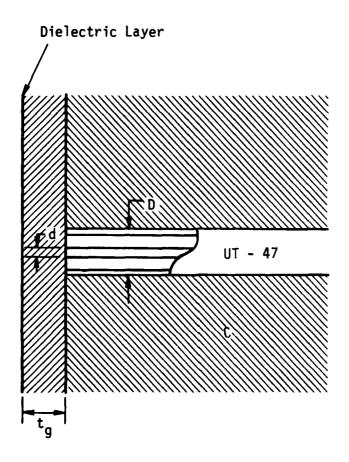


Figure 6. Small Faraday cup.

shielded from the ionized-gas electrons and low-energy secondaries by a thin graphite sheet in the original array developed during the FX-25 experiments. The array that we constructed for the FX-100 propagation experiments used a 125  $\mu m$  thick Titanium foil plasma shield that was insulated from the collectors with 25  $\mu m$  thick Kapton film. During the VISHNU experiments, the Kapton was replaced by a 500  $\mu m$  thick vinyl absorber on a smaller array. A schematic of this two-dimensional array is shown in Fig. 7. Of all dielectric materials that we have experimented with, Kapton (a polyimide) exhibits the most resistance to the intense beam irradiation. Although we replaced the shielding and insulating foils on a regular basis as a precaution, we had few problems with insulator breakdown in this detector configuration.

Electron scattering in the array materials results in an energy-sensitive effective collection area. The reason is that the more energetic electrons have a higher probability of scattering into the collector because of their greater depth of penetration. We studied this effect by using the Monte Carlo radiation transport code CYLTRAN to obtain the energy sensitivity of the effective collection area. Details of this study are reported in Appendix C. The energy sensitivity appears to be modest over a wide range of energies around the peak energy of the FX-100 beam, but the collection area for these high-energy electrons is significantly (factor of ~2) enhanced over the geometrical area.

The experiments using the FX-25 beam demonstrated that the risetime for these coaxial collectors driving a matched and properly terminated signal cable was limited only by the cable dispersion and oscilloscopes. In those experiments 1 ns risetimes were observed, and faster risetimes were observed in the VISHNU experiments. The combination of the high level signal generated by these collectors and the unbroken coaxially shielded construction resulted in a high signal-to-noise ratio on the oscillograms.

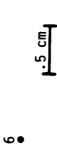




Figure 7. Two-dimensional Faraday cup array pattern - #1 is on the system axis.

### v) Carbon Calorimetry

The graphite block containing the array of Faraday collectors was also used as a beam calorimeter by measuring the temperature rise with a thermocouple. Because carbon calorimetry integrates over time, space, and the beam-energy distribution, it is impossible to distinguish beam-electron energy losses from loss of transported charge without simultaneous, precise measurements of beam current. The carbon calorimeter is quite simple to field in this kind of experiment, and it is the traditional diagnostic for definition of the propagation pressure window. Our use of a thermistor sensor simplified the measurements. The thermistor was found to be insensitive to radiation, and when calibrated, it was found to have a linear response over the restricted temperature range of this application.

Incorporation of the charge-collector array into the calorimeter block enabled us to simultaneously determine the beam energy transport and the temporal evolution of the radial current profile at any given axial location. A limited number of measurements were made with the calorimeter in vacuum, and isolated from the ionized-gas channel by a Titanium foil. The results of these measurements indicated that the energy deposited on the calorimeter from the plasma was not a significant fraction of the beam energy.

### vi) Open Shutter Photography

Time-integrated open-shutter photographs of the beam and ionized-channel excited air emission were obtained at a number of viewing ports over the course of the experiment. The symmetry properties of the drift tube were not disrupted by the ports because a return-current carrying screen was incorporated in each. The exposures with these cameras were recorded with Polaroid Type 52, 57 or 58 film. Both color and black and white films were used depending on the beam light output.

Because the observed light is a result of beam effects on the gas, rather than direct beam effects, open shutter results should be evaluated with care. A discussion of many of the issues involved in interpretation of the data obtained in this experiment with optical emission diagnostics is contained in Appendix B.

A point not covered in Appendix B is the following. As shown in the Appendix, the excitation of the upper level of the radiative transitions by the low-energy plasma electrons is  $-(kT_e)^{1/2}(1+kT_e/E_0)\exp(-kT_e/E_0)$ , where  $T_e$  is the temperature of the cold electrons, and  $E_0$  is the threshold of the excitation cross-section,  $E_0 \gg kT_e$ . The radiation is, therefore, very sensitive to the population of the high-energy tail of the electron distribution. It is well known that high electric fields can significantly distort the tail of the distribution. For example, a modest E/p of about 100 V/cm/Torr can increase the effective temperature of the tail of the distribution by a factor of 5 or more. As a consequence, the visible emission can be vastly different from regions having the same gas temperature and plasma electron density, but having widely disparate values of E/p. This may be the cause of some of the more spectacular effects seen in both open-shutter and time-resolved photographs.

### vii) 'Penny' Probes and the Erosion Rate Measurement Technique

Radial beam current densities are typically much less than axial current densities. As a result larger collectors are required for radial beam current density measurements. Five probes of the type shown in Fig. 8 were fabricated for the measurement of radial electron currents. A penny was drilled and soldered to a type HN vacuum feedthrough. Copper foil was soldered to the vacuum side to form a cylindrical 'can' which was at least 2 mm from the penny. The can was filled with epoxy, after which the penny was covered with 0.5 mm thick vinyl, and then covered with 0.025 mm of

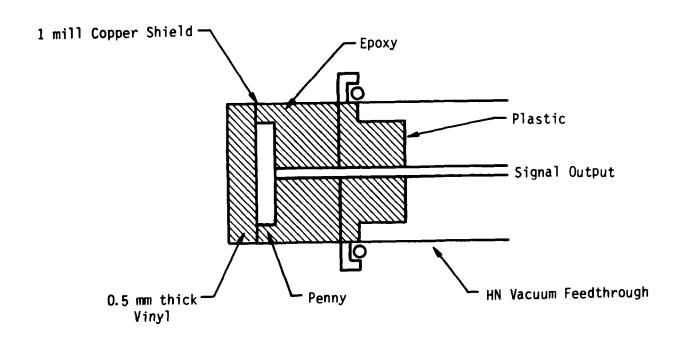


Figure 8. 'Penny Probe'.

Copper foil on the top. The minimum energy of electrons striking the penny is dictated by electron range-energy  $^{10}$  relations and is > 200 keV. All signals monitored by the probes were negative, and we expect that the absolute magnitude of the current is within 20% of the current expected based on area. The signals were found to go to zero at times in the pulse consistent with a diode voltage of 200-300 keV.

Penny probe signals may be used to infer the axial beam propagation velocity if the beam current and effective probe area are known. If the beam particle velocity is  $v_f$ , then the total charge per unit time lost radially in an infinitely long tube is  $I_b(1-v_f/v)=I_r$ . For simplicity assume a linear beam current rise time  $\tau$  behind the front. At any time,  $t < \tau$  after the start of the beam front passes, the radial current density is

$$J_{\Gamma} = \frac{I_{b} \left( 1 - \frac{v_{f}}{v} \right)}{2\pi a v_{f} \tau} \tag{3}$$

or equivalently

$$\int_{0}^{\tau} J_{f} dt = \frac{I_{b} \left( 1 - \frac{v_{f}}{v} \right)}{2\pi a v_{f}}$$
 (4)

which implies

$$\frac{v_f}{v} = \frac{I_b}{I_b + \left[\int_{\Gamma}^{\tau} J_r dt\right] 2\pi a v}$$
 (5)

Thus, the erosion velocity

$$v_e = v - v_f = \frac{\int_0^{\tau} J_r dt \ 2\pi a v}{I_b + \int_0^{\tau} J_r dt \ 2\pi a v}$$
 (6)

is found directly without subtraction, or measurement of small (few ns) time differences. The fact that subtraction is not required for erosion rate determination makes this technique particularly sensitive and reliable.

### viii) B-dot Monitors

The B-dot monitors used in our experiments work on the same principle as the so-called 'inductive shunt' monitor discussed in Sec. I.B.iii. The rate of change of flux through the loop induces a voltage which is either displayed directly or integrated at the scope and then displayed directly. Subtraction of signals from loops placed on opposite sides of the drift tube nulls out axisymmetric current and results in signals dependent on both current and transverse position. In general, for systems with integration time constant  $\tau$ , a drift tube radius b, and current I, the signal is

$$V = \frac{k}{\tau} \frac{I}{[(b + x)^2 + y^2]^{1/2}}$$
 (7)

where (x, y) is the position of the beam with respect to the system axis and k is the axisymmetric current monitor calibration. Subtraction of opposing loop signals gives rise to

$$V \sim \frac{2kI}{\tau} \frac{x}{b}$$
 for x, y small (8)

A correction factor for nonlinearities in (7) is given in Fig. 9.

With loops supplied by M. C. Clark of AFWL, our subtraction error was found to be less than 2%. Thus, the upper bound to the systematic error in position measurement is less than 2 mm.

Subtraction of the beam and net currents gave us a direct measure of the plasma current. This measurement was also accurate to  $\sim 2\%$  of the beam current magnitude, typically 5-10% of the plasma current.

### ix) Vacuum Current Measurements

A number of current measurements were made in vacuum in order to eliminate plasma current contributions and get direct beam current values. B-dot monitor signals described above were summed and integrated, a technique which resulted in signals which were independent of position in the small displacement limit.

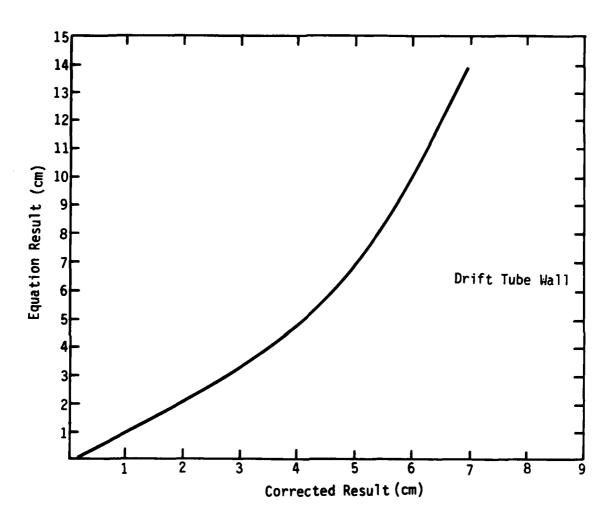


Figure 9. Relation between the equation (8) result and for displacement x (vertical axis) and true displacement (horizontal axis), for a 10 cm radius drift tube.

Initial tests indicated that plasma currents were still generated for pressures as low as  $5\times10^{-3}$  Torr. In order to keep the pressure sufficiently low in the vacuum cell, an air-cooled diffusion pump was placed in close proximity to the vacuum cell, and measurements were taken at pressures below  $10^{-3}$  Torr. At these low pressures a vacuum beam collector was required to prevent virtual cathode formation.

### x) Triangle Detector

A face-on view of the 'triangle' detector implemented in our experiment is shown in Fig. 10. We developed this detector array geometry for a variety of reasons. The number of oscilloscope channels available to us was limited to ~12, so that after standard current and voltage measurements only ~8 were available. We needed to maximize the data available from any array, and we wanted convenient signal amplitudes of order 10-100 Volts. The most important physics consideration in the design choice was the ability to distinguish between hose and hollowing motions simultaneously.

In order to take advantage of tomagraphic  $^{11}$  techniques we chose an array of long, narrow detectors, which approximate line integrals of the distribution. A regular array has special geometric properties which can aid in data analysis. In particular, equilateral triangles have useful properties. Hollowing is detected by comparing a second, nested parallel equilateral triangle to the first. The difference between the signals in the two arrays is a measure of hollowing. Finally, a central circular detector was included for completeness. Each long narrow strip is a Faraday collector, and the whole array is covered by 125  $\mu$ m Kapton and Ti foils to prevent plasma current contributions to the signals.

A technique for analyzing the data can be developed in a straightforward manner if we assume that the collectors are much longer than a beam radius, if we assume a particular radial distribution, if we assume that a circular beam is displaced, and if we assume that the beam is not hollow. As discussed above, comparison of the signals should indicate hollowing.

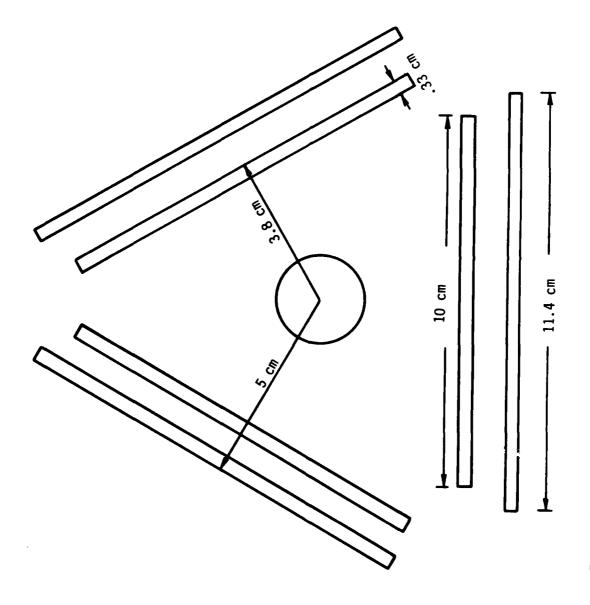


Figure 10. Triangle detector configuration used in the experiment.

As a first example, assume a profile of the type

$$J_b = \frac{I_b}{\pi a^2 \left(1 + \frac{r^2}{a^2}\right)^2} \tag{9}$$

If the beam centroid falls within the triangle, we find

$$I_n = \frac{6 a^2 I_b}{2(a^2 + x_n^2)^{3/2}}$$

$$x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} L$$
 (10)

where the meaning of  $x_{\text{n}}$  is shown in Fig. 11, and  $I_{\text{n}}$  is the current intercepted by the nth strip.

Assuming  $I_{\mbox{\scriptsize b}}$  is known or can be estimated to reasonable accuracy, we normalize the equation using the following variables:

$$\xi_1 + \xi_2 + \xi_3 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{L}{a}$$
;  $\xi_n = \frac{x_n}{a}$ 

$$1 + \xi_{n}^{2} = \left(\frac{\delta I_{b}}{2a I_{n}}\right)^{2/3} \tag{11}$$

We find the parameter 'a' from the equation

$$\sum_{n=1}^{3} \left[ \left( \frac{\delta I_b}{2aI_n} \right)^{2/3} - 1 \right]^{1/2} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{L}{a}$$
 (12)

which may or may not have a solution. A bound on the solution is

$$\frac{\delta I_b}{2 a I_0} > 1 , \quad \text{or} \quad a < \frac{\delta I_b}{2 I_0}$$
 (13)

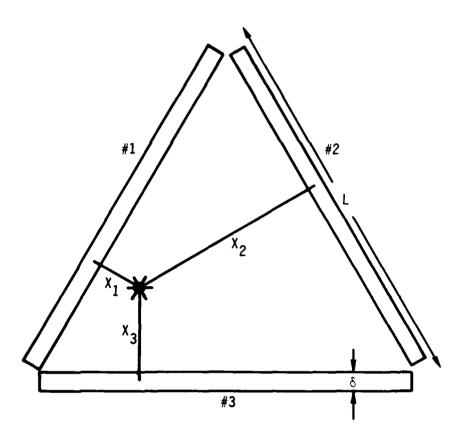


Figure 11. Triangle detector geometry used for calculations.

This is a necessary but not sufficient condition for solution. The procedure above should give a technique for finding the centroid position and Bennett radius given data from the detectors. Note that this detector is actually most useful when the beam is slightly displaced.

Another distribution of interest is

$$J_{b} = \frac{I_{b} a}{2\pi (r^{2} + a^{2})^{3/2}}$$
 (14)

for which

$$I_n = \frac{2\delta a}{(a^2 + x^2)} I_b$$
 (15)

Once again

$$\xi_1 + \xi_2 + \xi_3 = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} L$$
 (16)

$$\frac{I_n}{I_b} = \frac{2\delta}{a} \frac{1}{(1+\xi_n^2)} \quad \text{or} \quad \xi_n = \left(\frac{2\delta^I b}{aI_n} - 1\right)^{1/2}$$
 (17)

so that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{3} \left[ \left( \frac{2\delta I_b}{a I_n} \right) - 1 \right]^{1/2} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \frac{L}{a}$$
 (18)

Note that in the limit  $\frac{I_n}{I_b} \ll \frac{2\delta}{a}$ 

$$\left(\frac{2\delta I_{b}}{a}\right)^{-1/2} \left(\frac{1}{I_{1}^{1/2}} + \frac{1}{I_{2}^{1/2}} + \frac{1}{I_{3}^{1/2}}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \frac{L}{a}$$
 (19)

This same approximation procedure can be invoked for the Bennett distribution (previous case), and it provides a useful starting point for finding an iterative solution.

We have applied these techniques successfully in several cases. In general, the method appears to give the best results when the maximum difference in signal magnitudes is a factor of ~5. For higher energy accelerators, this technique would be useful if thin insulated tungsten wires were used 2-3 Bennett radii away from the beam centroid.

#### xi) Plasma Decay Time Measurement Technique

The most crucial parameter governing the hose instability is the dipole decay time  $\tau_d$ , which depends on the beam channel conductivity and current density profiles. The dipole decay time is approximately eight times the plasma monopole decay time  $\tau_m$ , which governs the axisymmetric plasma response to changing beam current:

$$\frac{d(I_{plasma})}{dt} = -\frac{d}{dt} (I_{beam}) - \frac{1}{\tau_m} I_{plasma}$$
 (20)

Since plasma current is the difference between net current and beam current,  $\tau_m$  may be determined from the directly measurable quantities  $I_{beam}(t)$ ,  $I_{net}(t)$ , and  $\dot{I}_{net}(t)$ :

$$\tau_{m}(t) = [I_{net}(t) - I_{beam}(t)]/\dot{I}_{net}(t). \tag{21}$$

The form of Eq. (21) may be generalized to include the effects of changing radius  $\dot{a}$ . From a simple calculation, the effect of changing radius is found to be less than that of current variations, except for very rapid pinching. A comparison of the electric field from pinching E<sub>p</sub> and current variation E<sub>I</sub> for the Bennett profile is

$$\frac{E_{p}}{E_{I}} = \frac{\frac{r}{r^{2}+a^{2}} + \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{r}{a} - \frac{\pi}{2}}{2n \frac{r^{2}}{r^{2}+a^{2}}} \left(\frac{2a}{a} \frac{I}{I}\right)$$

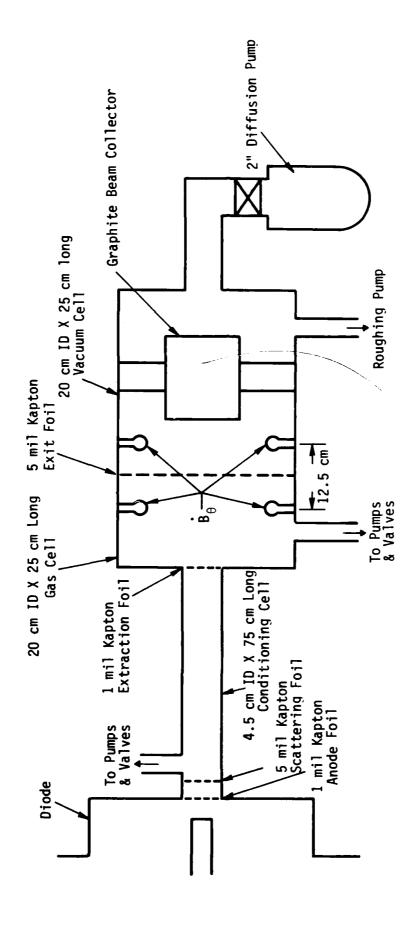
$$= \frac{.7a}{a} \frac{I}{I} \qquad .2 < \frac{r}{a} < 2$$

$$= 0 \qquad r > 2 \qquad (22)$$

We performed these measurements for gas cell pressures ranging from 1 Torr to 630 Torr, and for beam currents of approximately 5 kA and 15 kA. The configuration for these experiments is depicted in Fig. 12.  $_{\rm B_{\theta}}$  dot monitors were summed from the gas cell  $(\mathring{\rm I}_{\rm net})$  and from the vacuum cell with reverse polarity (-  $\mathring{\rm I}_{\rm beam})$  in a four-port transformer adder at the machine, a technique which reduced timing errors. The resultant  $\mathring{\rm I}_{\rm plasma}$  signal was RC integrated. Separate  $I_{\rm net}$  signals from the gas cell were recorded without integration. The vacuum beam currents and plasma currents were corrected for radial current losses between the upstream and downstream detectors to provide more accurate estimates of the plasma decay time. The results of these experiments are presented in Sec. III.c.

#### xii Pressure

Pressures for most of the experiments were measured with a McLeod gauge which gives absolute pressure from .1-150 Torr. Above this pressure, or when the McLeod gauge was not available, the pressure was measured using Granville-Phillips pressure gauges calibrated from .01-760 Torr.



C

0

Figure 12. Configuration for plasma decay rate measurements.

#### II. INITIAL MEASUREMENTS

The first experimental series was a survey of parameter space using the large propagation cell. Measurements were also made to characterize the beam as it exits the conditioning cell. Much of the experiment was performed using the configuration shown in Fig. 13 in which a 10 cm radius, 1 m long conditioning cell was followed by a 25  $\mu m$  Kapton foil, 25 cm of 10 cm radius tubing, and the large propagation cell.

#### A. CONDITIONING

The first task was to choose an appropriate conditioning cell pressure. We wished to decrease the beam rise time and center the beam using the natural centering properties of the image currents in the walls.  $^{12}$  The beam current was monitored with  $^{\dot{B}}$  loops, and our objective was to find the operating pressure which maximized dI/dt, and minimized transverse displacements.

At low pressure (P < 0.5 Torr), high frequency (0.8-1.5 GHz) signals were observed on the loop traces. Examples of these signals are shown in Fig. 14. Our observations of this phenomena are summarized below.

- 1) E-fields > 25 kV/cm are associated with the oscillation.
- 2) The oscillations are not shielded by plasma currents (the plasma monopole decay time is > 100 ns during the oscillations).
- 3) The electric fields are large over significant (40 cm) distances.

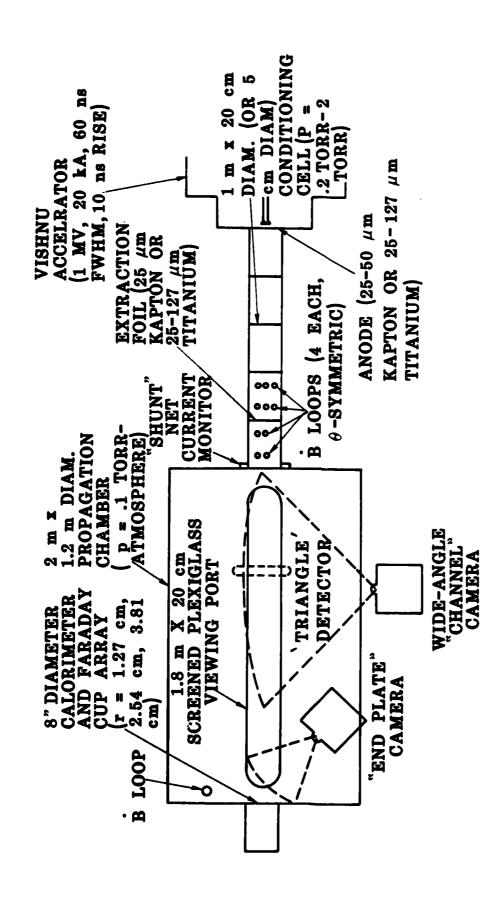
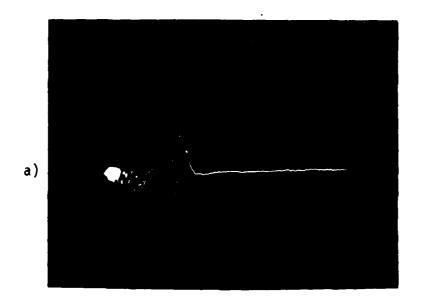
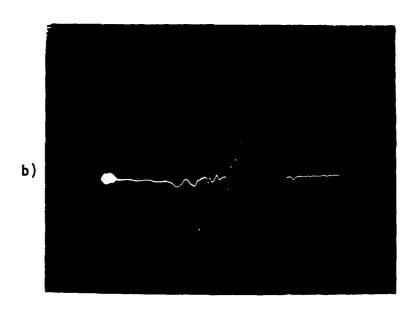


Figure 13. Propagation Experiment Schematic.



0.12 TORR

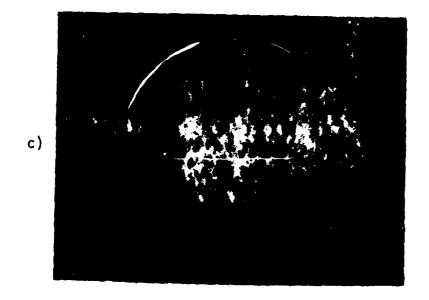
### 0.08 TORR 34 DEGREE BEAM SCATTER



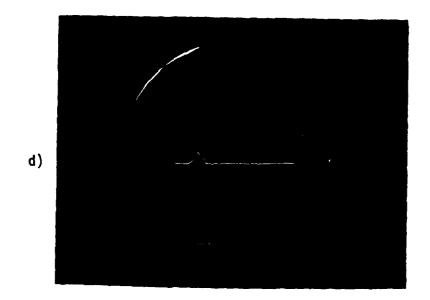
1 ns/mm

Figure 14. RF signals for various conditions as marked.

## B DOT SIGNALS 4 DEGREE SCATTERING



2 TORR



0.5 TORR

2 ns/mm

Figure 14. Continued.

- 4) Increasing the beam emittance using a 127  $\mu m$  Ti foil does not suppress the oscillations.
- 5) The oscillation frequency is near the axial beam plasma frequency  $(4\pi ne^2/\gamma^3 m)^{1/2}$ .
- 6) The plasma electrons are magnetized in this parameter regime (see Fig. 15).

Similar oscillations were observed in earlier propagation experiments in the 10 GHz range at  $\gamma \sim 1.8.^7$  Note that we expect  $f \propto (\beta V)^{-3/2}$  for axial beam plasma frequency oscillations, so that both RF observations may be due to axial beam modulations.

In the absence of a clear understanding of the oscillation effect we chose to run the conditioning cell at a pressure of 0.4 Torr, where the oscillation effect is relatively minor. Studies of the beam dI/dt at the beam head, indicated that this quantity seldom exceeded  $5\times10^{12}$  in the conditioning cell, aside from oscillations. Further, we found that dI/dt was much lower after the transition through the foil than in the conditioning cell. Thus, low pressure conditioning is not necessarily a useful technique for increasing the beam head electric field, which is proportional to dI/dt.

The beam radial current density profile was observed 25 cm beyond the conditioning cell, at the entrance to the large propagation chamber. Current density profiles at various times are shown in Fig. 16. The beam is found to have a larger current density at large radii than is consistent with a Bennett profile. The effective radius for this configuration is observed to be a minimum 10 nanoseconds into the pulse.

The initial conditions for injection into the large propagation chamber were a radius of 1.5 cm, injected beam current of 14 kA, risetime of 5 nanoseconds and a peak beam energy of 1 MeV.

## SCALAR CONDUCTIVITY MAY NOT BE VALID UNTIL HIGH PRESSURE

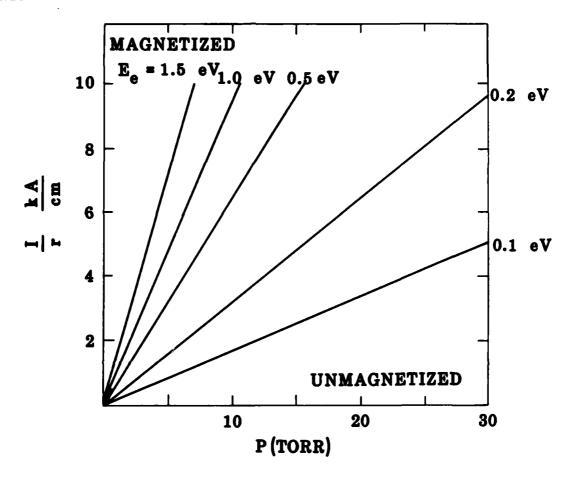


Figure 15. PLOTS ABOVE INDICATE  $\omega_c = \nu_m$  FOR VARIOUS ELECTRON ENERGIES

 $\nu_{m}$  = MOMENTUM TRANSFER COLLISION FREQUENCY

 $\omega_c$  = PLASMA ELECTRON CYCLOTRON FREQUENCY

(  $\nu_m$  FROM PHELPS, et. al.)

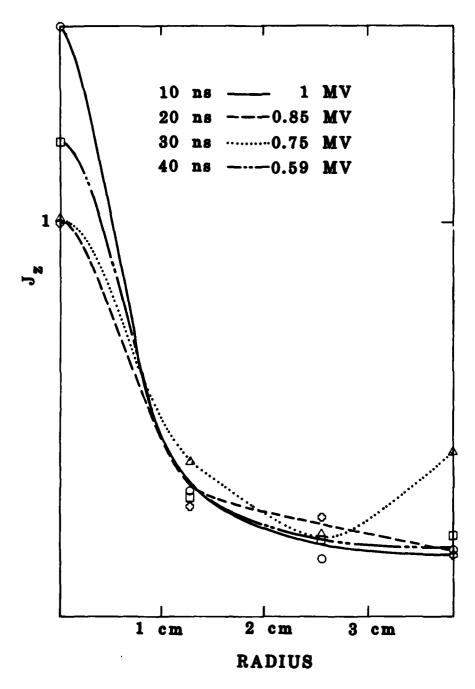


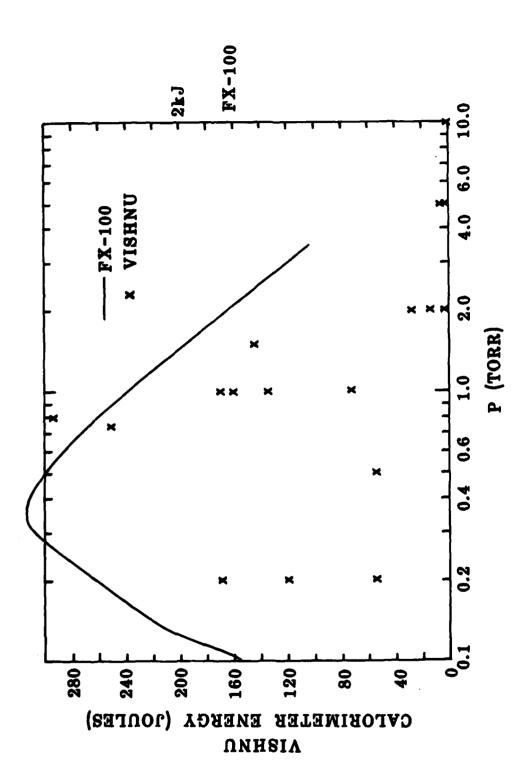
Figure 16. TYPICAL RADIAL PROFILE 25 cm BEYOND THE CONDITIONING CELL.

#### B. LARGE CELL OBSERVATIONS

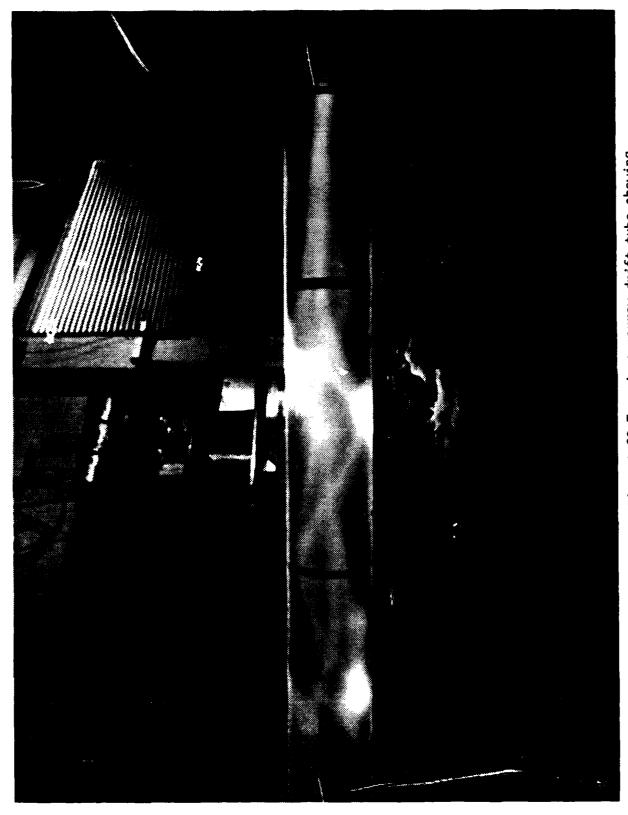
Propagation in the large chamber was monitored with open shutter photography, the carbon calorimeter, and the Faraday cup array. It is interesting to compare FX-100 beam energy propagation in 10 cm radius tubes to VISHNU propagation results in a 60 cm radius tube. This is shown in Fig. 17.

The best propagation is found below 1 Torr for both experiments--~0.5 Torr for the FX-100 experiment, and ~0.8 Torr for the VISHNU In the FX-100 case, significant energy propagation is observed for pressures of 3 Torr and above--a factor of 6 higher in pressure than the center of the propagation window. The VISHNU case is quite different as no energy is observed on the calorimeter above 2 Torr. conjecture that this difference is due to the different drift tube radii used in the two cases. The effect of a smaller diameter tube is illustrated by Fig. 18. An open shutter photograph of beam propagation in the smaller tube is shown in which the beam is clearly reflected from the drift tube walls several times. This demonstrates the effect of wall stabilization on the hose instability, and the importance of performing hose instability experiments in large diameter propagation chambers. Further, wall stabilization may account for inferred hose stability at 2 Torr in previous experiments. In the 20 Torr case shown in Fig. 18, the beam nose was observed to propagate to the detector, in contrast to the large propagation cell case. Clearly wall stabilization increases the amount of beam which is transported.

For the large diameter chamber VISHNU experiments, the question which must be addressed is: what is the reason for zero energy propagation above 2 Torr? Open shutter photographs of a 0.8 Torr shot with 295 Joules propagated energy, a 1 Torr shot with 72 Joules propagated and a 5 Torr shot with virtually no propagated energy are shown in Fig. 19, in order to illustrate the differences. All beams appear to be well-confined, so that hollowing can be ruled out as a cause of non-propagation. The 0.8 Torr beam propagates nearly straight and strikes the target within 8 cm, while



TRANSPORTED ENERGY vs. PROPAGATION PRESSURE FOR 15 kA INJECTED CURRENT FROM 120 cm X 20 cm DIAM. .4 TORR CONDITIONING CELL Figure 17.



Beam propagation at 20 Torr in a narrow drift tube showing the effect of the wall in recentering the beam. Figure 18.

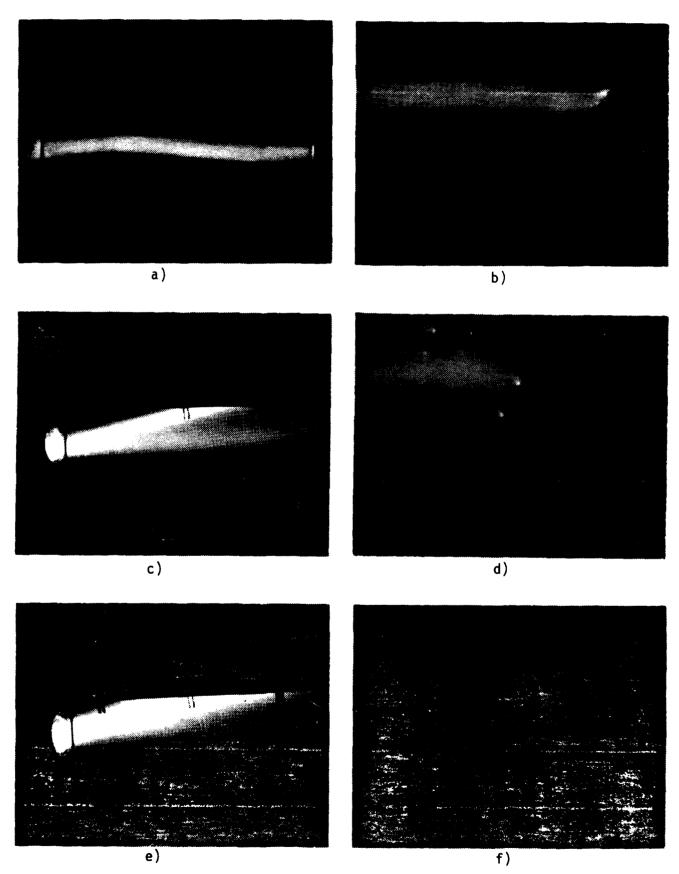


Figure 19. a), b) = .8 Torr; c), d) = 1.0 Torr; e), f) = 5.0 Torr. a), c), and e) are shots of the first 1.2 m, while b), d), and f) are end plate photos.

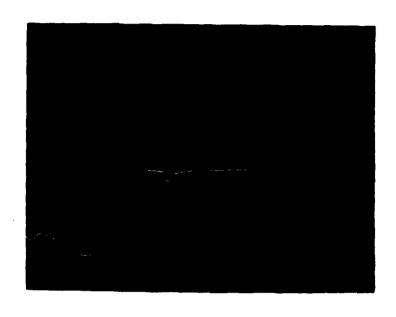
no portion of the 5 Torr beam strikes the target. The transition case of the 2 Torr beam is most illustrative. In this case the nose strikes the target (this was verified by Faraday cup signals), and at later times the beam is deflected due to the hose instability.

We suggest that the nose of the beam is eroded at a rate such that the hose instability is absolute in the frame of the nose.  $^{13}$  This is the so-called 'nose coupled hose' instability. In order to test at least part of this conjecture, the time required for the beam to propagate from the conditioning cell exit to the back plate of the large chamber was measured. The shunt current monitor signal was summed near the source on the same channel with the Faraday cup so that the delay measurement was not dependent on detailed timing measurements of long cables. The result was a measured average beam front velocity of  $0.50 \pm 0.05$  c for pressures between 0.7 and 2 Torr. Note that we are actually comparing current rise time in an r = 10 cm area to current density rise time. The rise time of the current density is observed to be very rapid—of order 1 nanosecond or less as shown in Fig. 20. The implications of these results will be discussed in Sec. IV.c, along with the later nose—hose measurements.

#### C. BEAM BLOW-UP OBSERVATIONS

The 10 cm radius conditioning cell was replaced by a 2.25 cm radius cell in order to further reduce the initial beam transverse oscillation level.

In one series of experiments in this set, a 25  $\mu m$  thick Ti foil was used to scatter the electron beam. A typical photograph is illustrated in Fig. 21. An outer halo is observed to diverge as the beam propagates away from the injection point. This divergence was found to be dependent on conditioning cell current, as shown in Fig. 22. For low conditioning cell currents, the divergence angle approaches zero, while for high conditioning cell currents, the divergence angle is large. As illustrated in Fig. 23, placing the Ti foil at the anode foil position, rather than at the end of the conditioning cell results in apparently well-confined propagation for the majority of the beam.



2 ns/mm

Figure 20.

FAST FARADAY CUP MEASUREMENTS ON AXIS SHOW CURRENT DENSITY RISETIMES  $\tau_{\rm r} < 1~{\rm ns}$ , In AGREEMENT WITH CPROP SIMULATIONS (2 METER PROPAGATION IN 2 TORR AIR, 1.1 TORR CONDITIONING CELL PRESSURE).

# DIVERGENCE FOR A 1.0 TORR CONDITIONING CELL PRESSURE

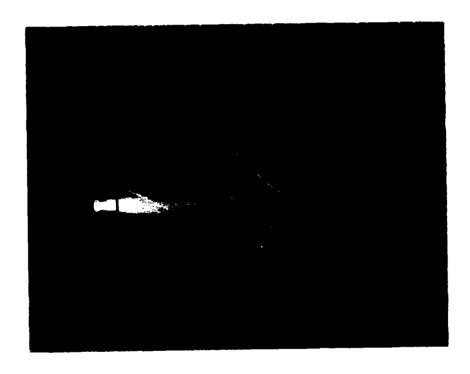


Figure 21.

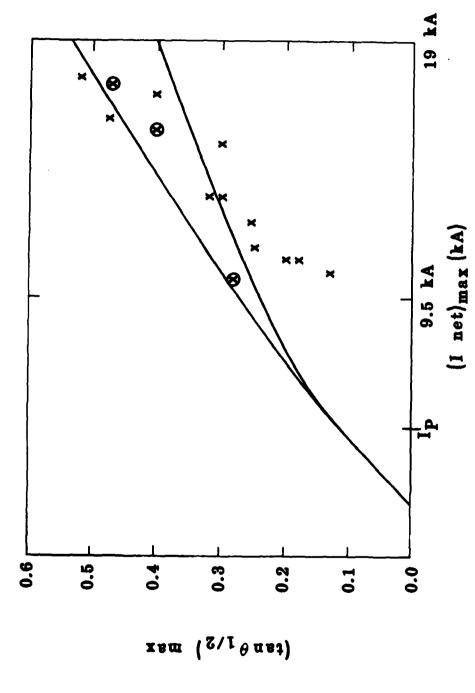


Figure 22. BEAM DIVERGENCE IN 2 TORR AIR AS A FUNCTION OF CONDITIONING (P<2 TORR) CELL PEAK NET CURRENT

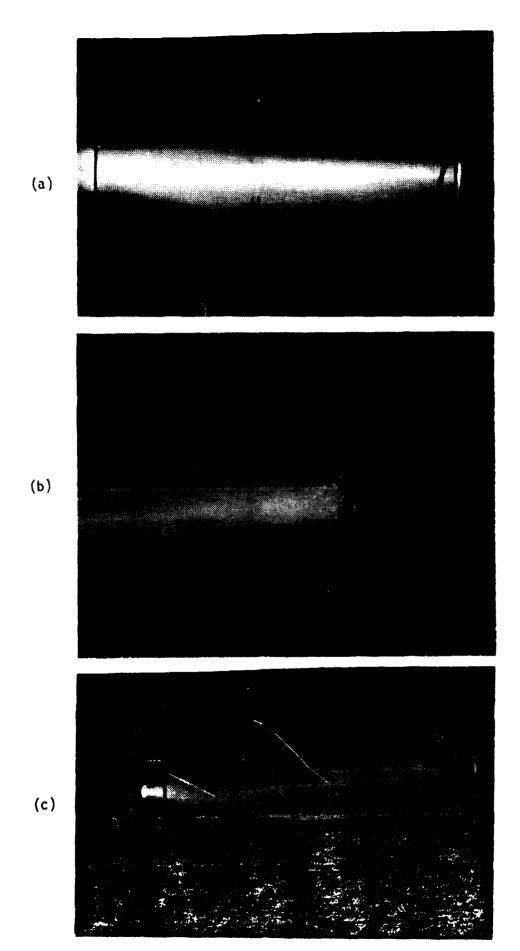


Figure 23. Beam propagation with emittance foil at anode (a,b) and at the end of the conditioning cell (c), demonstrating improved propagation.

This effect is well explained by the combination of increased emittance due to the Ti foil, and reduced net current observed in the large diameter chamber. In the limit of zero net current  $I_{\text{N}}$ , the divergence would be a combination of the maximum betatron oscillation angle in the conditioning cell ~  $\sqrt{2I_{\text{C}}/I_{\text{A}}}$  ( $I_{\text{C}}$  = conditioning cell current  $I_{\text{A}}$  =  $\gamma\text{mc}^3/\text{e}$  = Alfven current) and the foil divergence angle of ~0.3 radians. Addition of the two by quadrature and making an ad-hoc correction for focusing due to  $I_{\text{D}}$  results in an angle

$$\theta \sim \left(0.09 + \frac{2I_c}{I_A}\right)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{2I_p}{I_A}\right)^{1/2}$$
 (23)

which is also plotted in Fig. 22. This is a gross example of the effect of increasing the emittance between the conditioning cell and main cell.

One other phenomenon observed in our experiments (and certainly many others) deserves note. In Fig. 19, for example, one observes high intensity light spots at the end plate. These are almost certainly 'cathode' spots<sup>14</sup>--that is, a high density plasma region in which electrons can be extracted from a metal due to locally enhanced temperatures. Such spots occur at the end plate early in the pulse, and at the injection point late in the pulse. Their existence and location may affect beam propagation because they act as a source for the plasma current.

#### III. BEAM CHARACTERIZATION

The initial survey measurements demonstrated that interesting phenomena were occurring in the large propagation chamber experiments. In order to get more quantitative results, we undertook careful characterization of the beam in the configuration of Fig. 24. The extracted current was 5-6 kA, of which almost 100% propagated to z=25 cm. The beam energy was  $\sim$  1.1 MeV.

#### A. TRANSVERSE MOTION

Our objective was to produce a beam with a very low transverse displacement and velocity at the exit of the conditioning cell. Average beam offset was monitored with witness foils and with unintegrated, subtracted B-dot detectors. In unintegrated mode, a perfectly balanced B-dot pair monitors the quantity B - Ix + xI, so that B/I is a good measure of both the initial transverse velocity and position in units of velocity. This quantity is plotted in Fig. 25a, and the same data after passing through bandpass filters is shown in Fig. 25b. Clearly, 0.70 Torr should be our operating point. Blue cellophane witness foils verified that at lower pressures the beam was offset by as much as 3 mm. Although the bandpass filter data cannot be easily quantified, it qualitatively indicates that growth is stronger at lower (i.e., 30 MHz) frequencies. If we assume a frequency of 20 MHz, the typical displacement is ~0.7 mm.

Our present understanding is that the rapid increase of transverse noise above 0.8 Torr is due to hose instability growth in the conditioning cell combined with increases in the magnitude of the net current. The witness plates also indicated that the beam at the extraction foil had a nominal 0.5 cm radius and was offset no more than 1 mm at P=0.70 Torr.

#### B. BEAM PROFILE

Because our intention was to make measurements relevant to the propagating beam state in the large diameter drift chamber, we decided to

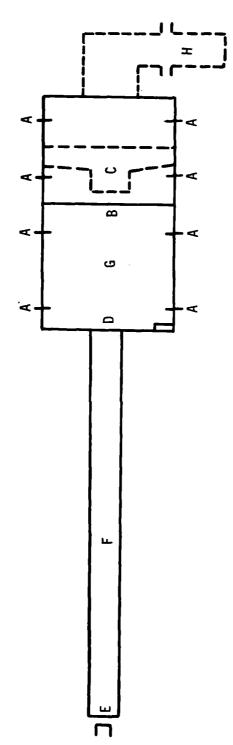


Figure 24. Experimental Configuration showing:

- (A) B-dot or Penny probe position
- (B) Vacuum/gas interface foil or Faraday cup position
  - (C) Vacuum current collector
- (D) 25  $\ensuremath{\text{\text{um}}}$  Kapton extraction foil
  - (E) 125  $\mu m$  Kapton entrance foil
- (F) Conditioning cell

(G) Propagation cell

(H) Diffusion Pump

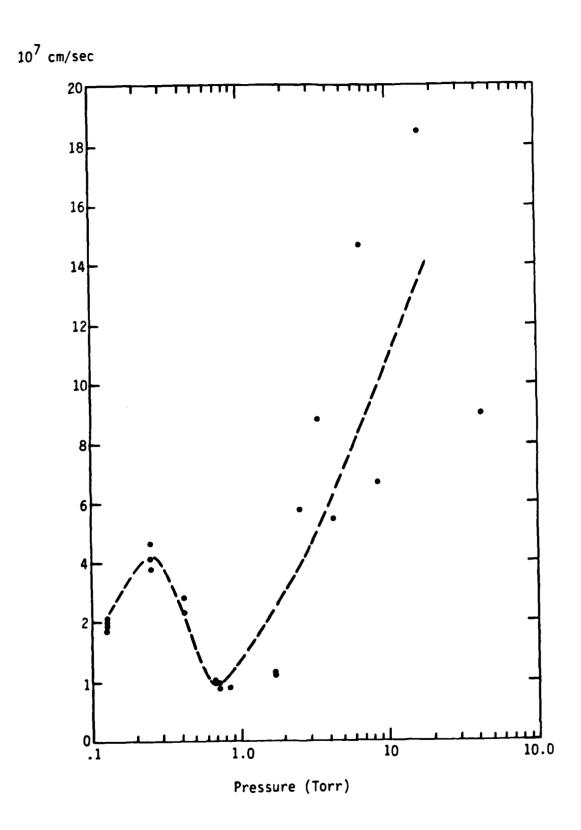


Figure 25a. Conditioning cell exit transverse velocity as a function of pressure.

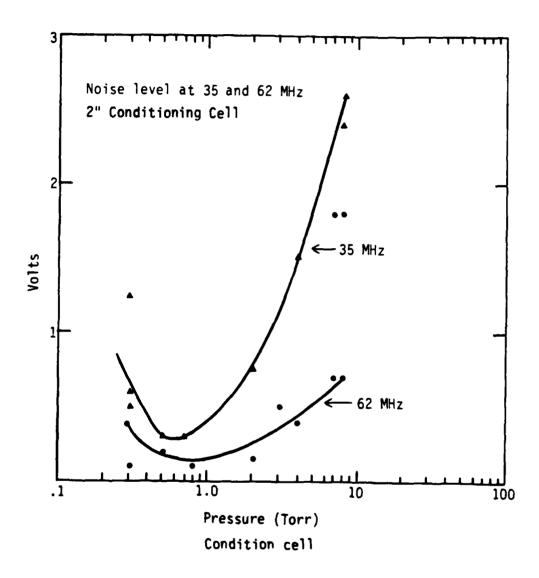


Figure 25b. Data broken into frequency bands.

measure the beam radial profile as a function of time at a position 25 cm (more than 2 betatron wavelengths) beyond the extraction foil.

The Faraday cup array of Fig. 7 was used to make time dependent measurements of the beam radial profile. The motion of the beam centroid was evident on this detector. In Fig. 26, a representation of radial profile data at a hose stable pressure of 3 Torr is shown. This profile indicates that the Bennett radius is ~0.9-1.0 cm between 30 and 50 nanoseconds. During the 0-30 nanosecond time period, the radius is undergoing significant changes. We also note that although the beam is stable in this particular case, it appears to be slightly off axis ( $^{-1}$  cm) at z = 25 cm. Two other cases are shown in Figs. 27, 28. Note the quasi-three-dimensional technique used to plot data in the transverse plane. The 50 Torr data of Fig. 27 indicates that the beam undergoes several oscillations, peaking at probes (sequentially) 7-2-6-2-1-1-7, in 8 nanosecond intervals. We ascribe this motion to the hose instability. The 15 Torr case demonstrates an apparently monotonically increasing displacement in the direction of probe 6 from probe 7. These observations are in qualitative agreement with the B-dot hose data of Sec. IV.

Most hose oscillations observed appear to be continuous in space. Cases do exist however, where the motion is discontinuous between two channels. This type of motion would not be easily observed on magnetic probes due to the plasma current contribution.

In general, the Bennett radius can be taken from the profile data at some representative time for each shot and one can attempt to arrive at general scaling information. The beam profile is affected by hose motion, and this effect was observed in the Astron experiments.  $^{15}$  Our studies indicate that sweeping of the beam a distance of 2 cm results in a 50% increase in the beam diameter. In general, the Bennett radius was found to be  $1.0\pm0.2$  cm independent of pressure.

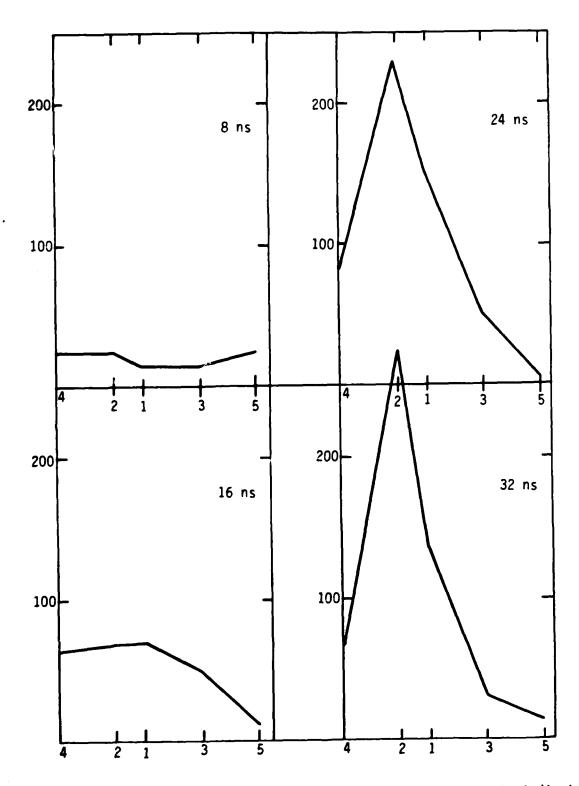


Figure 26a. Beam profile at 3 Torr where the probe number is indicated on the horizontal axis and the relative current density on the vertical. Probe 1 is center and probes 1,2 are separated .5 cm, and probes 1,3; 3,5; and 4,2 are separated 1 cm.

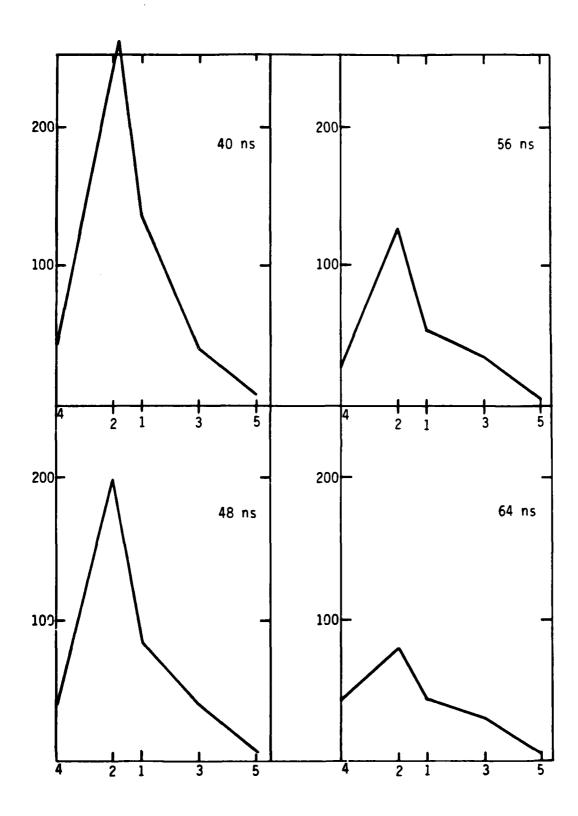


Figure 26. Continued.

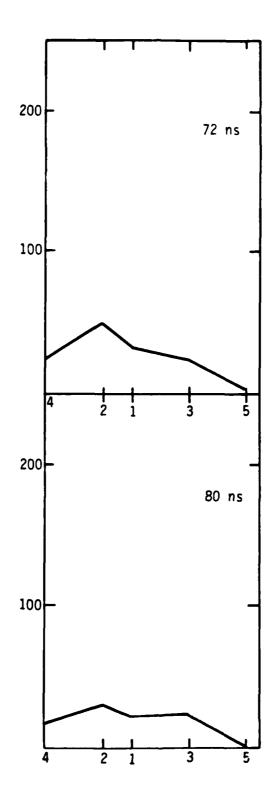


Figure 26. Concluded.

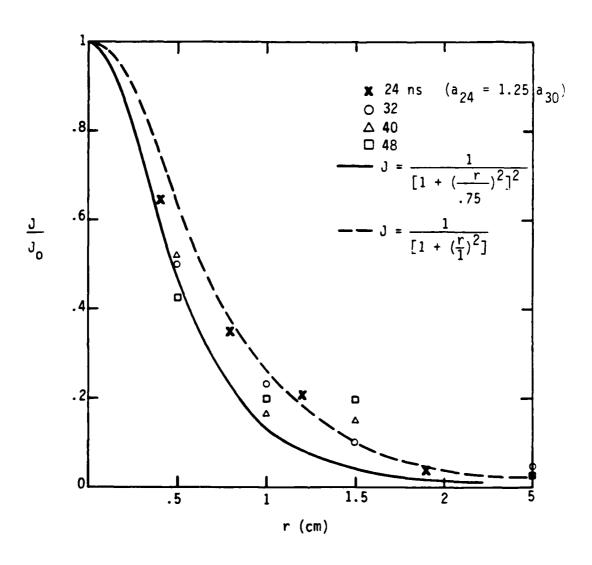


Figure 26b. Radial beam profile from the data of Fig. 26a.

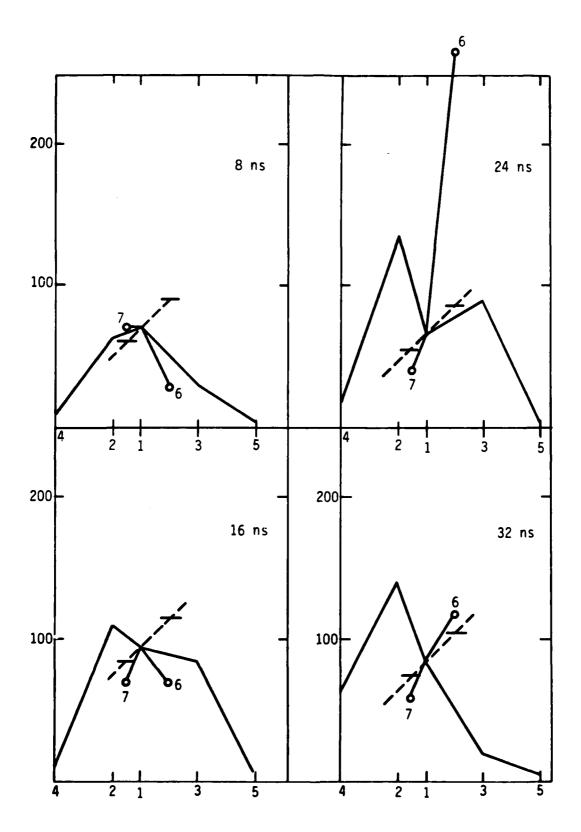


Figure 27. Beam profile evolution for 50 Torr. Transverse probes 6.7 are plotted relative to probe 1 at a 45° angle. Thus, the dashed line represents the probe 1 signal relative to 6 and 7.

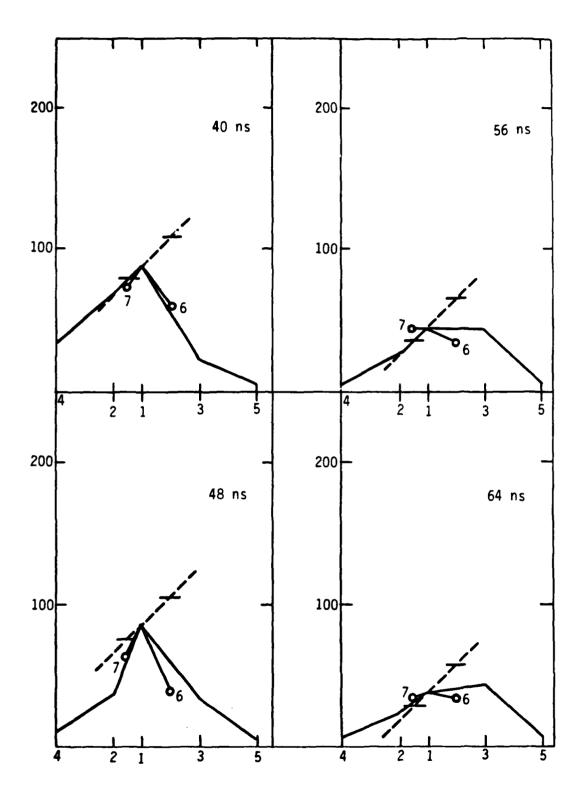


Figure 27. Continued.

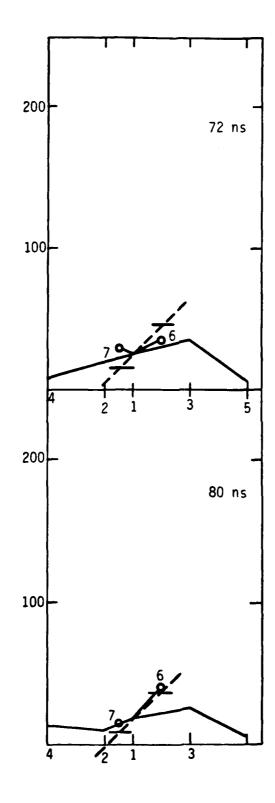


Figure 27. Concluded.

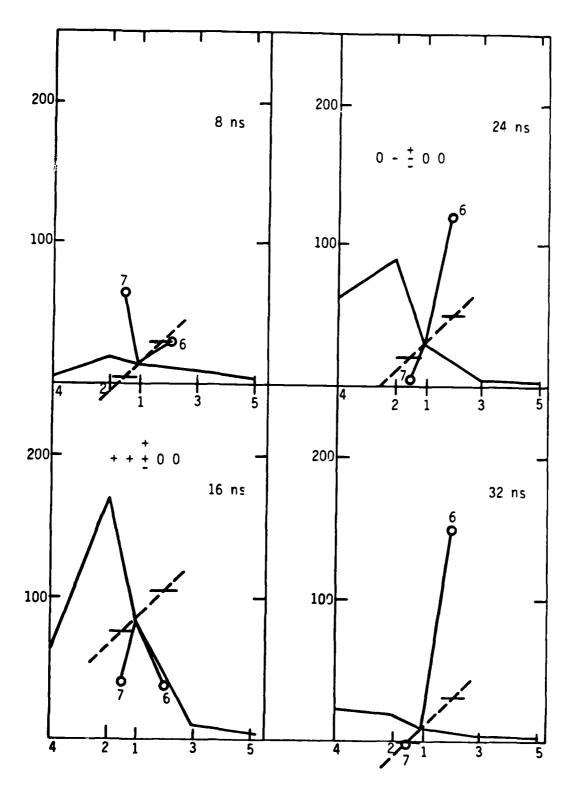


Figure 28. 15 Torr Faraday cup data.

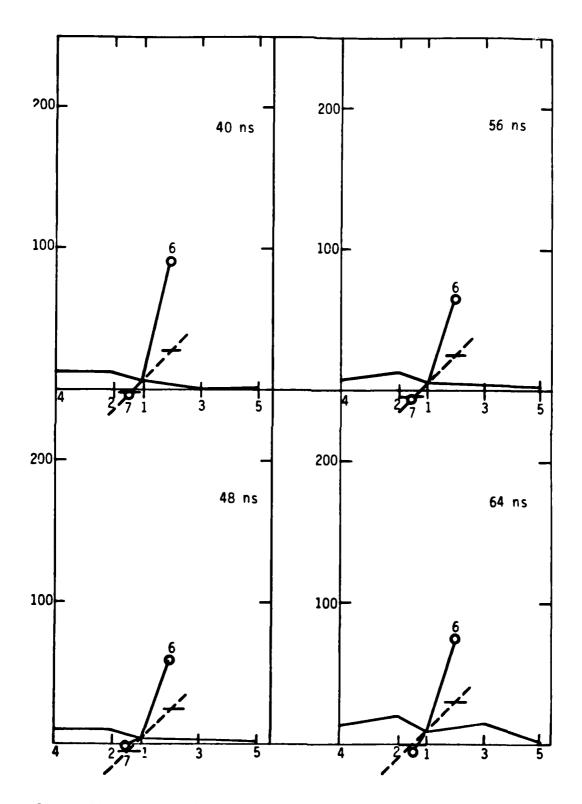


Figure 28. Continued.

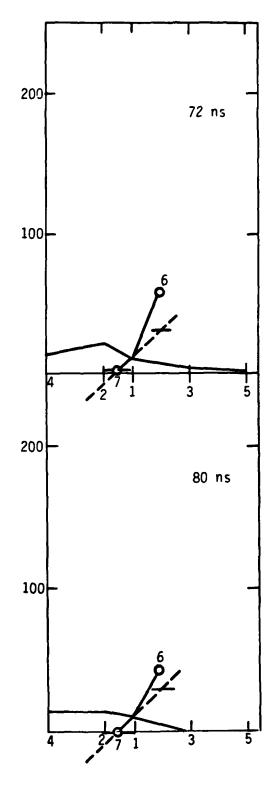


Figure 28. Concluded.

As we vary the pressure and observe the beam profile temporal evolution, we find a significant change at P = 15 Torr. For P < 15 Torr, the beam does not evolve into a well-pinched profile until ~20 ns into the pulse. For P > 15 Torr, the beam is found to be in a well-defined, pinched state for times earlier than 8 ns. For the marginal 15 Torr case, the beam is found to be in its pinched state at t  $\approx$  10 nanoseconds. This effect can tentatively be ascribed to the low net current which is observed at low pressures. The equilibrium radius varies as  $I_n^{-1/2}$ , and it is this fact which is reflected in the data.

Although it is tempting to ascribe some minimum net current requirement for pinched propagation based on this data, no one value results. The net current criterion based on the data is 2.8 kA for 3 Torr, 4.5 kA for 10 Torr, and 2 kA for 15 Torr. If we speculate that the differences in net current at 'pinch time' are due to variations in the return current profile, then it is possible that the results can be explained by plasma return currents which differ from inside to outside the beam. These effects may also be the result of axisymmetric beam hollowing which is a result of avalanche ionization. This correlates well with the observed upper pressure for avalanche ionization of 5-15 Torr found in Sec. III.c.

The apparent fixed value of the Bennett radius may also be a result of return currents flowing outside the beam at low pressure. Based on this data the half-current density point is found to be ~0.65 cm. For fixed emittance, we would expect this quantity to depend on time into the pulse, and on current. The current in turn depends on pressure, but the radius is independent of pressure between 2 and 100 Torr. The current variation between 1 and 150 Torr is shown in Fig. 29. The relatively constant radius may tentatively be explained by the combination of hose-induced beam broadening at 10 Torr and above where the net current exceeds 4 kA.

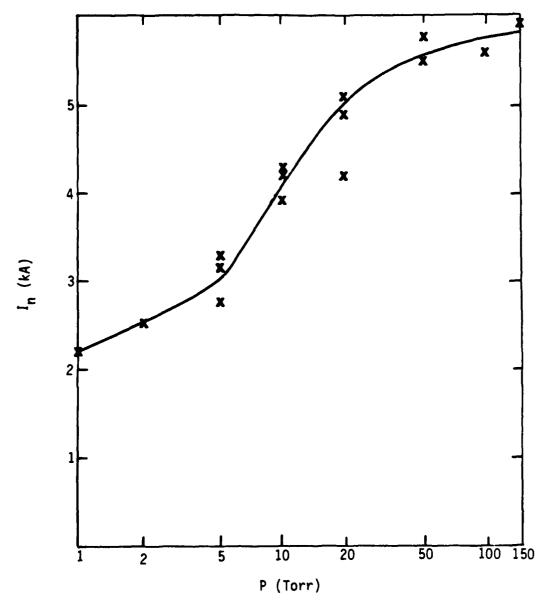


Figure 29. Net currents as a function of pressure.

### C. PLASMA DECAY TIME

The most important plasma parameter in the hose instability problem is the plasma dipole decay time,  $\tau_d$ . This quantity is well approximated by the variational expression<sup>15</sup>

$$\tau_{d} = \left\{ \int \frac{dr}{r} \, \sigma(r) \left[ \frac{I_{n}}{c} \right]^{2} \right\} / \left\{ \int \pi dr \left[ j(r) \right]^{2} \right\} , \qquad (24)$$

where I(r) is the net current within radius r. The approximate value of  $\tau_d$  is

$$\tau_{d} \approx \frac{1}{8} \tau_{m} = \frac{1}{8} \left( \frac{4\pi\sigma a^{2}}{c^{2}} \right) = \frac{1}{8} \frac{\sigma a^{2}}{6c^{2}} ; \sigma = \frac{ne^{2}}{m\nu}$$
 (25)

for Lee's spread mass model of the hose instability. The equation above assumes that the beam drift tube is infinite. In our case, b = 10a, and this should be a good approximation. The technique used for analyzing the data to arrive at  $\tau_m$  is discussed in some detail in Sec. I.xi. We simply note here that the decay time includes contributions due to changes in the beam and channel radii. These decay time measurements are still the most detailed measurements of this type of which we are aware, and provide the basis for comparisons of hose theory and experiment.

Three representative decay time plots are shown in Figs. 30, 31, 32. The peak decay time  $\tau_{\rm m}$  is found to be 90, 40, and 20 nanoseconds at 5, 100, and 620 Torr, respectively corresponding to average peak conductivities of  $3\times10^{13}$ ,  $1\times10^{13}$ , and  $6\times10^{12}$  sec<sup>-1</sup>. The general nature of the time dependence varies with pressure. At 5 Torr there is a rapid increase in  $\tau$  during the first 10 nanoseconds, followed by a slower rise during the next 50 nanoseconds. At this time the beam current begins to fall, and so, as a result, does the decay time. The rapid rise is indicative of avalanche ionization. Some variations in  $\tau_{\rm m}$  early in the pulse are probably a consequence of variations in the beam radius a. For 15, 100 and 620 Torr, we find  $\tau$  to be increasing approximately linearly during the pulse. Analysis of  $\tau_{\rm d}$  for a higher current shot (15 kA versus 5 kA) at 20 Torr showed

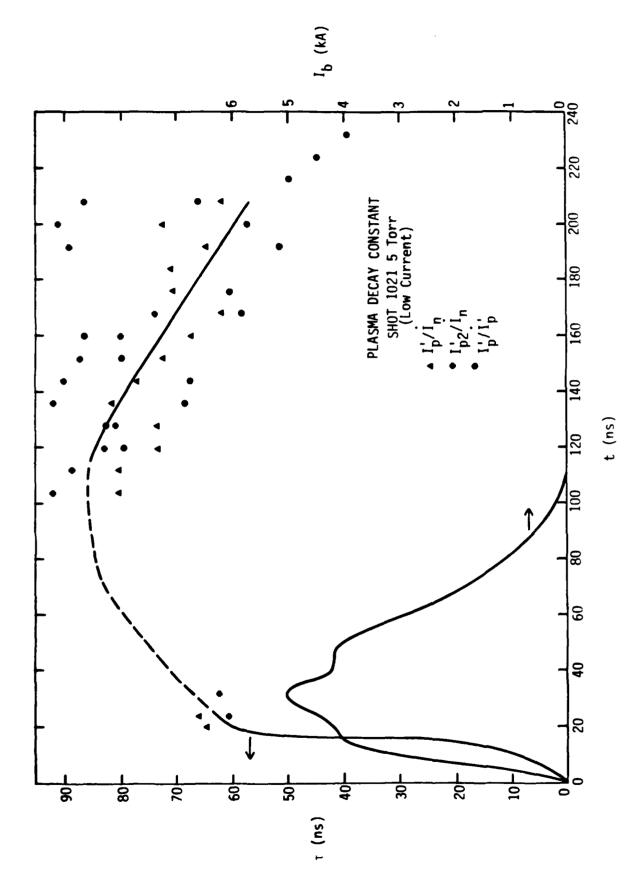


Figure 30. Plasma decay time  $_{\rm IM}$  for 5 Torr.

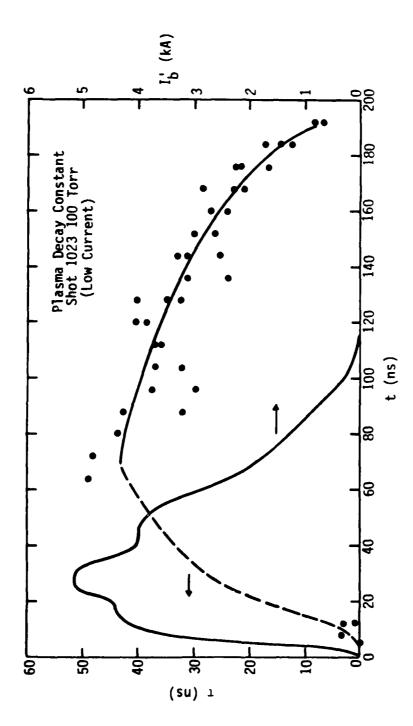


Figure 31. Decay time for 100 Torr.

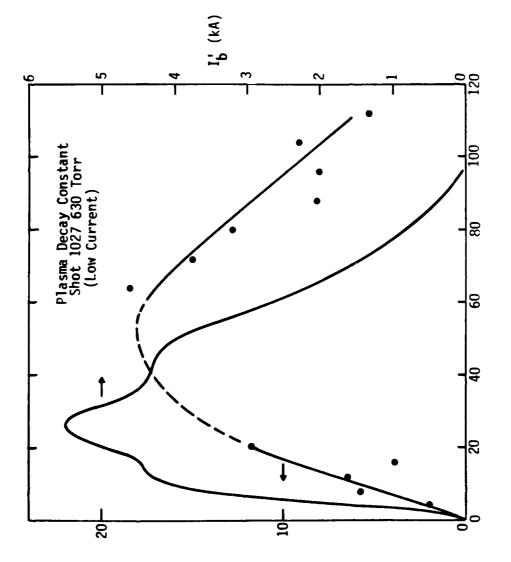


Figure 32. Decay time for 630 Torr.

no significant differences from the corresponding low current shot (Figs. 33, 34). There appears, based on the data, to be a transition between avalanche and impact ionization at ~15 Torr. This corresponds to E/P ~15 V/cm-Torr.

The decay time changes by a factor of only five where the variation in pressure is a factor of 120 (5 Torr to 620 Torr). This results because lower temperatures and higher collision frequencies at high pressures have counteracting effects. As the neutral density, n, is increased, the electron temperature falls and the electron collision frequency, which varies as nT increases only slowly.

A convenient formula relating  $\tau_{m}$  to the electron density per unit length may be derived from the relation between the collision frequency and temperature, and Eq. (24)

$$N = \pi a^2 n = 3 \times 10^{12} P(Torr) T(eV) \tau_m$$
 (26)

These measurements are particularly valuable if some other relation between n and T is known. If we assume that the Saha relation is valid at full pressure, and that error is due only to uncertainty in the thermodynamic pressure P, we find that  $T_{\rm e} \sim 0.6$  eV  $\pm$  10% for full pressure air. This number appears to be eminently reasonable in light of the number of assumptions (such as channel diameter) required to calculate it.

The plasma decay time results are particularly important in allowing us to predict hose frequency behavior, and in providing a benchmark for numerical work (see Sec. V.B). A general observation relevant to all the results in this section is that the decay time does not vary wildly with changes in pressure or current, in the absence of avalanching. It would be possible to produce a useful empirical model for  $\tau$  given more data on decay times for more varied currents and pulse lengths.

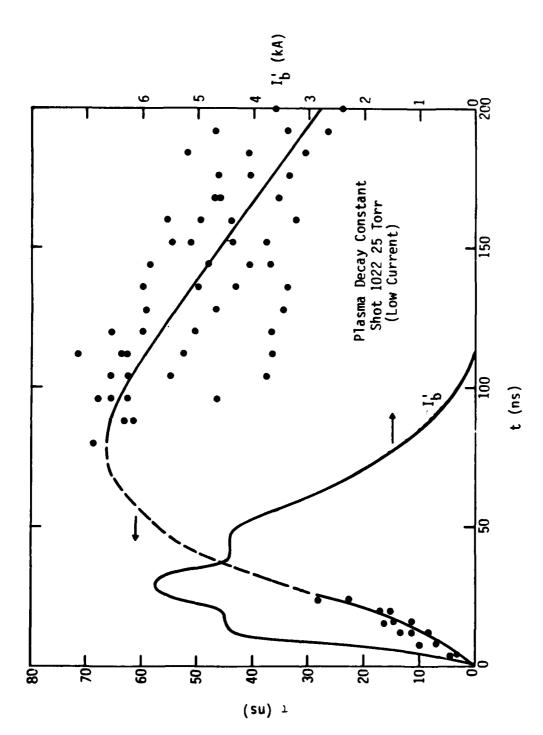


Figure 33. Decay time (20 Torr, low current).

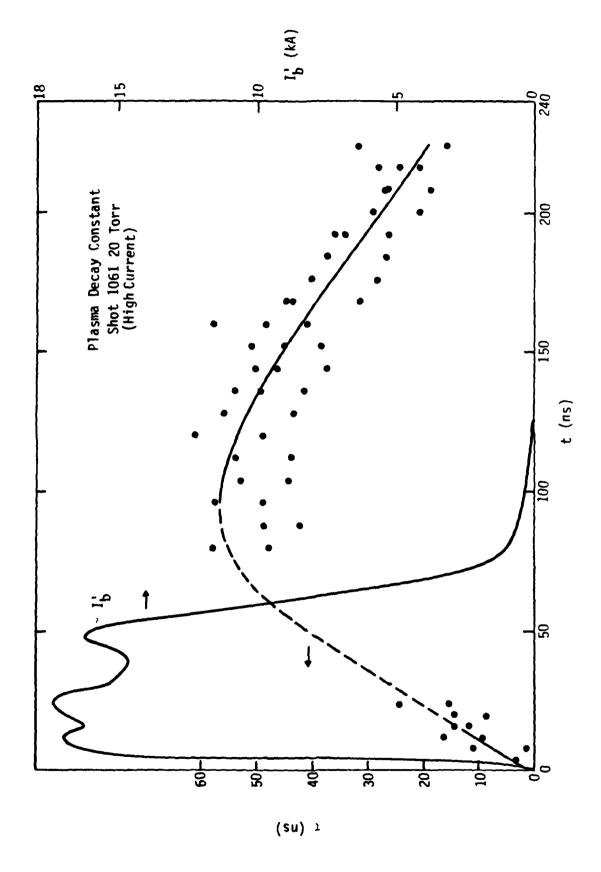


Figure 34. Decay time (20 Torr, high current).

#### IV. NOSE EROSION AND HOSE RESULTS

In this section we will discuss our beam front propagation measurements, the hose growth measurements in the  $r=10\,\mathrm{cm}$  chamber, and finally, the nose coupled hose instability measurements. Where applicable, we will attempt to compare these results with theory.

### A. BEAM FRONT MEASUREMENTS

Using the penny probes and the beam front velocity measurement technique outlined in Sec. I.B.vii, along with differential B-dot probes, we have characterized beam front propagation in detail. Our experimental setup is shown in Fig. 35, where 4 penny probes and the specific B-dot summing network are outlined, along with an aperture used on some shots, and an intermediate net current monitor. Several major results are evident:

- 1) The beam front velocity is extremely nonuniform with the velocity generally increasing as a function of propagation distance to 85 cm, and decreasing beyond.
- 2) Extremely fast (< 1 ns) rise times can be produced with the aperture plate inserted in the drift tube.
  - 3) The erosion rate increases with increasing net current.
  - 4) Anomalous radial losses occur during the pulse.

As discussed in Sec. IIb, the <u>average</u> beam front velocity in the large propagation cell was observed to be relatively slow--0.45-0.55 c. This value results from comparing the time at which the first net current is observed at a B-dot current monitor to the time the first current is

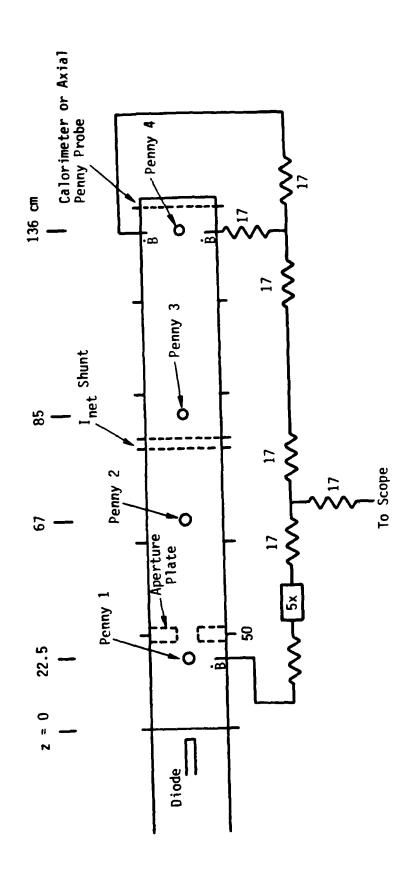


Figure 35. Beam front analysis setup.

observed in the central Faraday cup detector. Similar measurements have been made for the same nominal beam current (~15 kA), in the r = 10 cm tube. A typical data set is shown in Fig. 36 for a beam current of 15 kA. The dashed lines indicate the time assigned to the beam front propagation phase of the penny probe signals. The net current undergoes considerable spatial variation for this particular case, as shown by Figs. 36a-c. At 67 cm and beyond, the penny probe signals show radial beam currents which result from both beam front radial emission, and an anomalous radial loss process. The penny probe beam front phase duration was chosen by noting local minima in the signals. Net current traces indicate an upper bound of 12 ns at 22 cm, and 6 ns at 136 cm for the beam front phase. In general a rise-time reduction is always observed on the net current signals. Between 22 and 85 cm, the first, low current portion of the beam is lost. This is consistent with Fig. 36c where P22 is seen to have a 5 nanosecond dura-Indications from the z > 25 cm signals is that the 5 nanosecond rise-time is observed beyond this point. The early portion of the I85 signal shows a faster rise time, however, this is not observed at the end of the drift tube.

A series of experimental measurements was performed where the pressure was varied for the same 15 kA injection parameter. The hose instability and its effects dictated an upper pressure for reasonable results of ~20 Torr (see Fig. 18). The beam front velocity as a function of axial position for all pressures  $1 \le P \le 20$  Torr is shown in Fig. 37, where  $v_f/v_b$  is the ratio of front to beam velocity, and the beam electron axial velocity is nominally 0.88 c. The quantity  $v_f/v$  is found to average to 0.76 for the last three probes. The slow front velocity at  $z \le 50$  cm contributes to the total propagation time, and reduces the average front velocity to ~0.6  $v_f$ .

The beam front "length"  $t \sim v_f/\tau_r$  ( $\tau_r = r$  is time) is typically longer than the drift tube for the parameters of the experimental series described above. In the course of the experiments an aperture plate was placed at z=25 cm, as shown in Fig. 35. In addition to reducing the propagated current, we found that this plate resulted in a much reduced

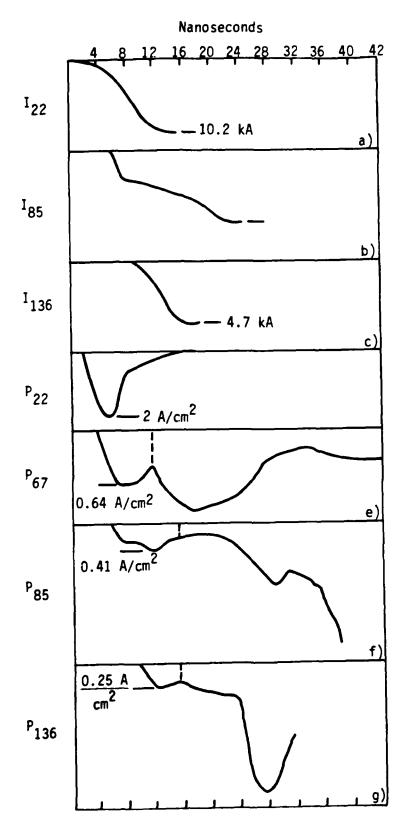


Figure 36. Net currents at a) 22 cm, b) 80 cm, c) 136 cm and penny probe signals at d) 22, e) 67, f) 85, and g) 136.

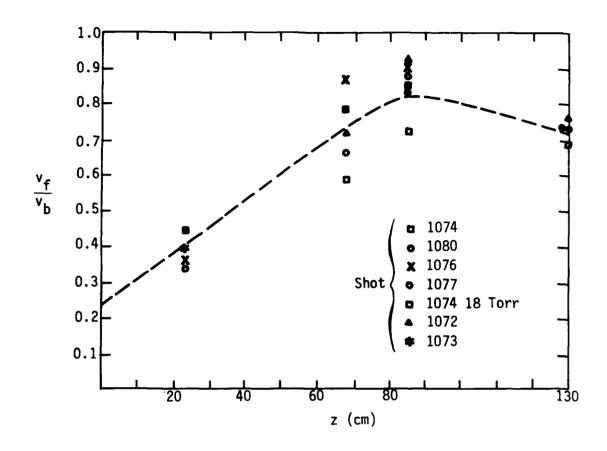


Figure 37. Beam front velocity as a function of axial position. The highest net current and pressure is shot 1074.

rise time, and hence, enhanced dI/dt. A typical set of waveforms for a 1.8 cm diameter aperture is shown in Fig. 38, for an 18 Torr propagation pressure. The  $\dot{I}$  exceeded  $10^{13}$  A/sec with the exact value dependent on corrections for the system time response. The penny probe signals are also consistent with a subnanosecond rise time. The existence of significant RF oscillations at 600 MHz during the first 20 nanoseconds at 18 Torr is significant, and may indicate that oscillations are associated with fast rise times. These oscillations are probably of the same type as those discussed in Sec. II.

Based on the penny probe signals, a beam front velocity of  $v_f/v_{\rm c} \sim 0.85 \pm 0.03~v$  is observed for the second half of the drift tube. The present theoretical prediction for the steady state beam front velocity is  $^{20}$ 

$$\frac{v_{f}}{v} - 1 - \frac{1}{1 + \frac{mc^{3}}{2e} \frac{\gamma - 1}{I_{b} \ln(b/a)}}$$
 (27)

where b/a is the ratio of tube to beam radius. This equation predicts  $v_f/v \sim 0.5$  c for the case of b/a  $\sim 2.7$ . Clearly, the present analytical theories are inapplicable or must be modified since  $v_f/v$  is typically  $\sim 0.85$  in our data. One area in which the theoretical model is in error is its direct dependence on  $I_b$ . The effect of magnetic slowing, which varies as the net current is clear in our data—high  $I_n$  is observed to slow the beam front by as much as 0.1 c in the case of Fig. 37, shot 1079.

Previous workers in a similar parameter regime (15 kA, 1.5 MV, 2 Torr) also measured a somewhat higher front velocities than predicted by Eq. (27). Fessenden et al.  $^{16}$  measured  $v_f \sim 0.77$  v in a detailed series of experiments utilizing the FX-25 accelerator. This value is in reasonable agreement with the assymptotic value of  $\sim 0.82$   $v_f$  we measure over the last 50 cm of the drift tube.

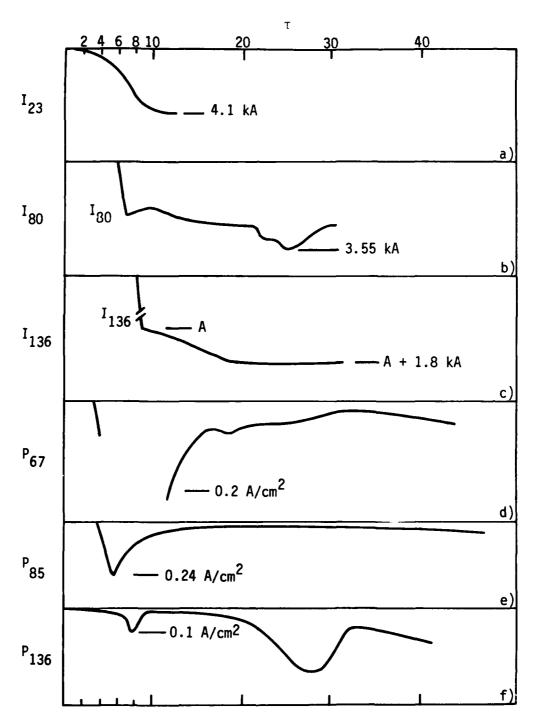


Figure 38. Apertured current traces for 18 Torr. The  $\rm I_{136}$  current is unknown because of attenuation of the very fast dI/dt.

The presence of high frequency electric fields may also affect beam front propagation as suggested in Ref. 7. In the  $r=10\,\text{cm}$  drift tube, the cutoff frequency for TMO1 is 1.14 GHz, so the first harmonic of the 600 MHz signal we observe is above cutoff.

The origin of the fast rise time in the aperture case has not yet been elucidated. It may be associated with rapid transition between unpinched and pinched propagation observed in the Faraday cup data. As shown in Fig. 26 the beam radius shows a rapid change at ~20 ns into the pulse. Thus, the rapid risetime effect may be correlated to the transition between unpinched and pinched flow observed in the Faraday cup measurements of Sec. II.A.

# B. HOSE STUDIES

A series of position monitor measurements were made using the beam which comes out of the 4.5 cm ID conditioning cell in order to gain an understanding of the hose instability for our particular beam parameters. The experimental setup is similar to that shown in Fig. 23, with a propagation distance of 50 cm. The data was taken at a series of pressures, with, as discussed in Sec. III, a 5 kA beam. Position monitor signals were acquired without integration so that more detailed high frequency data could be obtained. Differential signals such as the direct subtracted B-dot output weight frequency components by a factor  $\omega$  where  $\omega$  is the angular frequency of a hose oscillation. The main component of an unintegrated signal is proportional to  $\dot{x}I$  after the rise time, where x is the transverse position. As such, if the instability is in the linear regime,  $\dot{x}$  is a linear parameter and linear growth rates can be computed.

Conversely, the frequency components observed if the instability is in the nonlinear regime are probably the dominant linear modes. This conjecture is based on the idea that in the nonlinear state, the beam moves ballistically (i.e., in a straight line path) at an angle to the axis determined by the nonlinear instability amplitude.

Typical direct B-dot data is shown in Fig. 39. Note that these are subtracted signals on one plane (both planes were monitored). The signals in the transverse (vertical) plane were somewhat smaller, indicating a systematic source of noise in the horizontal plane in the conditioning cell, which we did not attempt to isolate.

We note a number of features in the raw data. The most important is the frequency content: The frequency increases with pressure at a fixed time in the pulse. It also decreases with time for a fixed pressure. High frequencies are typically observed at the beginning of a trace. The "average" hose velocity assuming a fixed net current of 5 kA is shown as a function of pressure in Fig. 40, although we note that the net current is somewhat lower, particularly at low pressures of 1 and 2 Torr. In general the hose velocity increases slowly with pressure as shown in the data corrected for net current in Fig. 41. The hose velocity correlates well with the peak net current as is also shown in Fig. 41.

We plot the position data derived from Fig. 39 in Fig. 42. Oscillation periods from Fig. 39 have been used to attempt to quantify the observed hose frequency dependences. The period data is compiled as shown in the Fig. 39 bar lines and is admittedly subjective. As a standard for comparison we use the conductivity data from Sec. III.c and assume  $\tau_d$  = 1/8  $\tau_m$  (Bennett profile results), and also assume linear decay time growth as observed, so that  $\tau_m$  ~ (t/70 ns)  $\tau_m$  (70).

The results are shown in Fig. 43, where the curve  $\omega\tau_d=0.85$  is plotted for comparison. The agreement is better than one would expect based on the accuracy of the data, and the extrapolations made. The frequencies chosen were based on the (d/dt) (Ix) data and so tend to indicate higher frequencies than would the position monitor data.

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A great deal of theoretical work has been performed on the hose instability and we will limit ourselves to comparisons with the models of

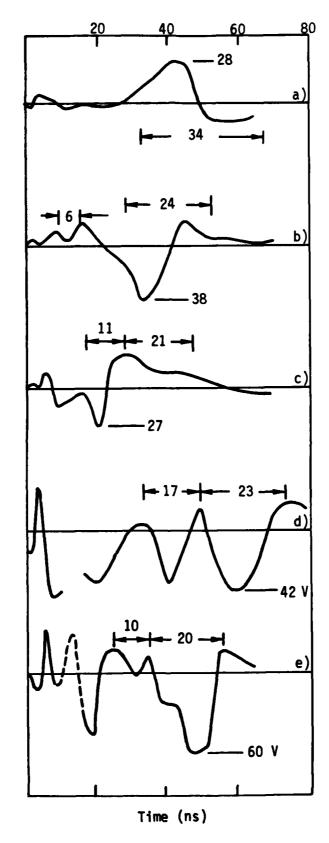


Figure 39. B-dot for pressures of a) 10, b) 20, c) 70, d) 150, and e) 230 Torr.

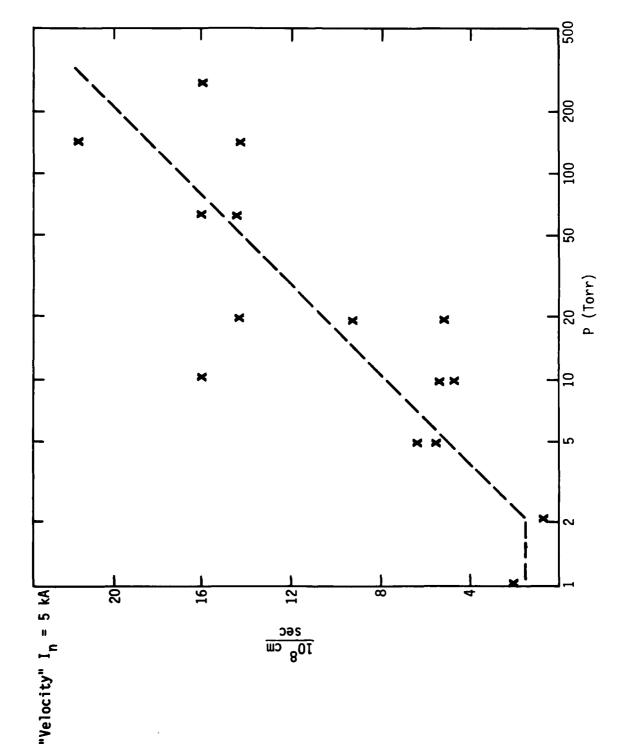
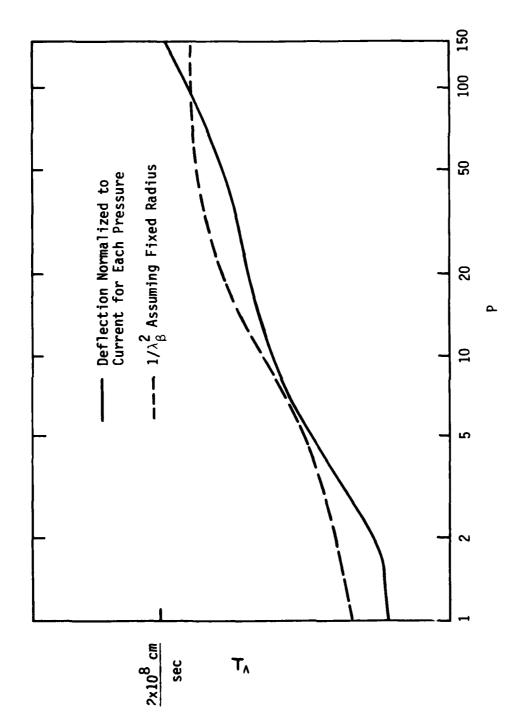


Figure 40. Hose velocity at 54 cm as a function of pressure.



Hose velocity data corrected for the net current dependence compared to the betatron wavelength squared. Figure 41.

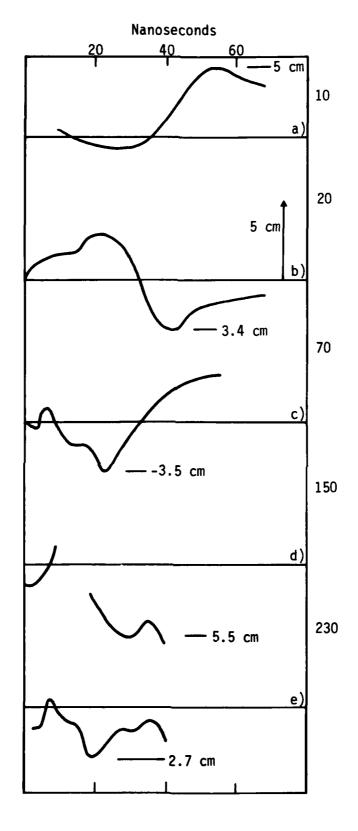


Figure 42. Position data corresponding to Fig. 39 for pressures of a) 10 Torr, b) 20 Torr, c) 70 Torr, d) 150 Torr, and e) 230 Torr.

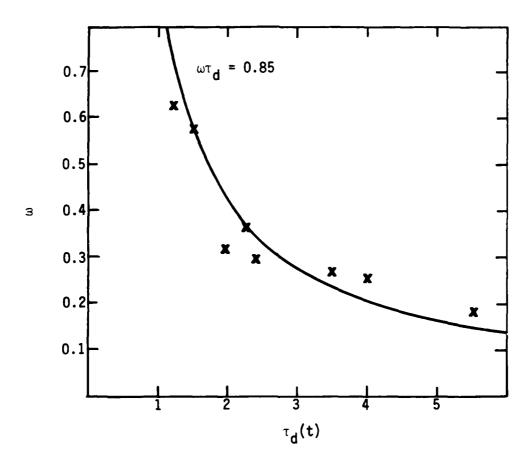


Figure 43. Hose frequency dependence on plasma decay time  $\tau_{\rm d}$  =  $\tau_{\rm m}/8$ .

Lee, and of Uhm and Lampe. Given the assumption of real frequency  $\omega$  in the lab frame, most theoretical work concentrates on growth in the beam frame, which is characterized by the real and imaginary lab frame frequencies  $\Omega_r$  and  $\Omega_i$ . The prediction of Lee's analysis in the absence of damping due to phase mixing is that  $\Omega_i/k_\beta$  ( $k_\beta$  = betatron wavenumber) is maximized for  $\omega\tau_d$  ~ 0.57. The spread mass model predicts maximum growth for  $\omega\tau_D$  ~ 0.5. Uhm and Lampe's model includes monopole plasma currents, and indicates that  $\omega\tau_d$  ~ 0.7 for maximum growth. From these results we conclude that our result is in good qualitative, and even passable quantitative agreement with theory for the relationship between growth frequency and decay time.

Our hose growth data is consistent with the following interpretation:

- 1) The pulse length is much longer than the beam propagation distance and the hose convection time in the system.
- 2) Under the situation above we observe spatial growth from an approximately fixed amplitude noise source.
- 3) The main parameter changing during the pulse is  $\tau$ , and the frequency varies according to the variation of  $\tau$ .
- 4) Due to 1) the hose frequency can vary since the unstable waves convect out of the measurement volume.

To our knowledge, this analysis represents the first experimental correlation between the hose frequency and plasma decay time.

Spatial hose growth lengths may also be calculated from the data. Our input noise differs from the linear theory case--in our case, a beam

with some fixed noise enters the plasma, and the plasma response dictates the amplitude of magnetic axis perturbations. In linear theory, the two are coupled by the time delay of a fixed sinusoidal input. For this reason, we can define two growth rates—the magnetic axis growth rate which ignores the plasma response problem, or the growth for a fixed transverse beam motion.

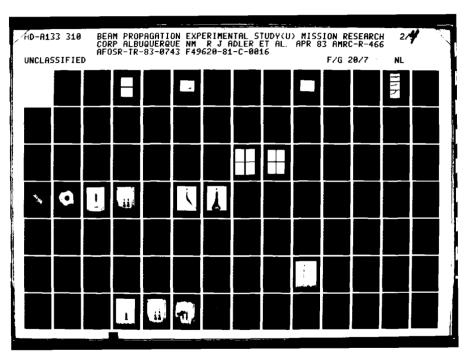
The growth rate computed from the ratio of magnetic probe signals relies on determination of the exact frequency components of the two signals. We attempted to do this with some success using bandpass filters, as in the conditioning cell run.

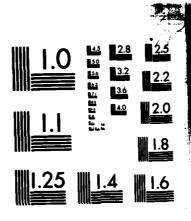
For the data run typified by Fig. 39, we find a spatial e-folding length of 16  $\pm$  8 cm. We compare this to the peak value predicted by the rigid beam model of ~5/kg, ~0.8  $\lambda_{B}$ , ~12 cm for a 1 cm radius beam.

An example of a particularly good spatial correlation is shown in Fig. 44, where signals from probes spaced 42 cm are shown and the growth length was  $\sim 12$  cm. This growth length is also in reasonable agreement with theory.

One interesting feature which may be discerned from Fig. 44 and other similar data is that at early times in the pulse, high frequency signlas are more evident on the downstream pictures than on the upstream, indicating faster growth at high frequencies.

A quick survey of magnetic versus beam position was performed using the vacuum cell. A limitation of the measurements was that they were separated by half a betatron wavelength. An example is shown in Fig. 45. Further investigation of relative motion is essential for further hose studies since it will give the instability phase. In addition, comparison of the two signals gives a direct measure of  $\tau_d$ .





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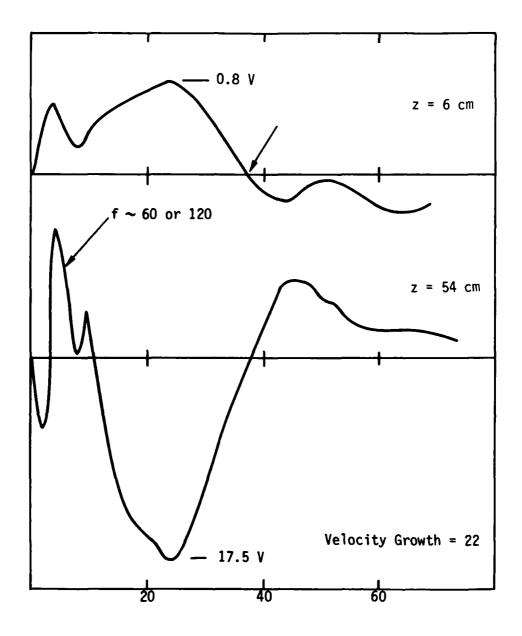


Figure 44. Spatial growth of the hose velocity for P = 20 Torr.

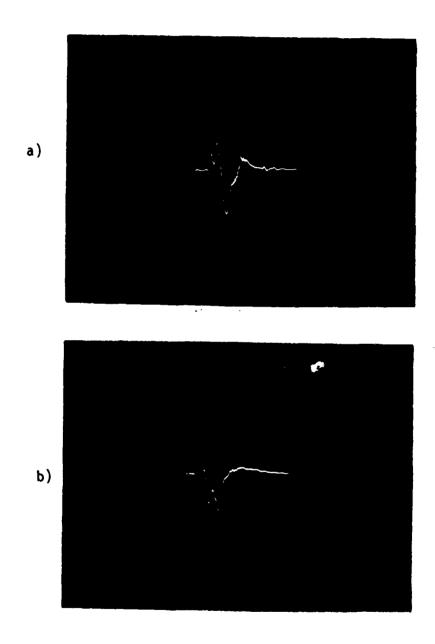


Figure 45. Comparison of transverse velocity for a) magnetic centroid and b) beam centroid.

## C. NOSE-HOSE DEVELOPMENT

Using the triangle detector, beam propagation in the large cell was measured as a function of axial position. The measurements of the previous section have established the existence and magnitude of the hose instability in the body of the beam. The purpose of the measurements outlined in this section was to take a more detailed look at beam hose during the first few nanoseconds of propagation evolution. In addition we wished to study a larger range of pressures than we used in Sec. II. Pressures of 10, 50, 100, 200 and 620 Torr were used in the experimental setup of Fig. 12, and the 4.5 cm conditioning cell. Some of the most striking results were obtained at a pressure of 50 Torr--an open shutter photograph of propagation over 1.2 m to the triangle detector is shown in Fig. 46. Summing all triangle detector channels gives an approximate beam current measurement. Triangle currents for z = 0.30, 0.60, and 1.2 m from the injection point are shown in Fig. 47. The duration of a stable beam is ~16 nanoseconds at 0.30 m, 4 nanoseconds at 0.60 m, and 0 nanoseconds at 1.2 m. Examination of the individual signals indicates that propagation is unstable even in the nose at 2 nanoseconds. The hose convection velocity near the nose appears comparable to the beam front propagation velocity. We observe that over 30 cm, there is a dramatic reduction in current transport. This can be explained if the hose is moving at least as fast as the beam front while simultaneously growing in the beam front frame. Note that it is possible for different frequency components to propagate at different phase and group velocities.

The first 60 cm of propagation distance was observed to have anomalously slow propagation (Sec. III.A), consistent with the picture above. Also note that the CPROP simulations (Sec. V) suggest that the beam front velocity is significantly slower at 76 Torr than at 15 Torr (where our beam front measurements were performed). The rapid rise of the beam current—which occurs at the system limited value of 2 ns in Fig. 47. is consistent with the evolution of beam front propagation as observed in the apertured beam study of Sec. IIIa. In Sec. IIIa., rapid beam front motion was associated with the onset of the pinch which ended the slow propagation phase.

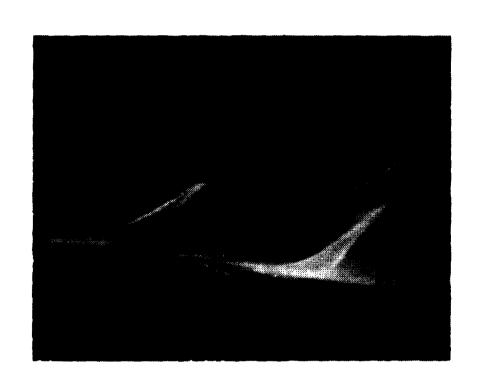


Figure 46. Open shutter photograph of a hose unstable beam propagating 1.2 m in the large propagation cell.

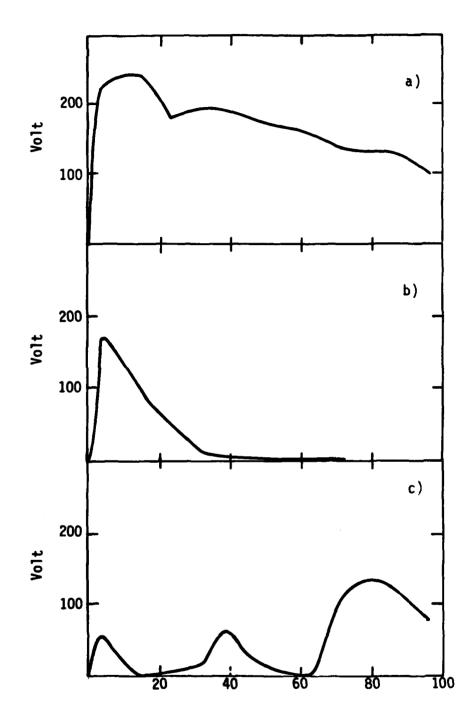


Figure 47. Approximate beam current at a) 30 cm, b) 60 cm, c) 120 cm for 50 Torr.

Similar data taken at 200 Torr is shown in Fig. 48. The same beam front evolution is observed in this case as in the 50 Torr case.

By far the most stable propagation is observed at 630 Torr (Albuquerque atmospheric pressure). In this case, the beam is expected to undergo Nordseick expansion, and this is in fact observed optically as shown in Fig. 49. The Nordsieck length observed in our optical measurements is approximately  $50 \pm 10$  cm. The Nordsieck length predicted based on our peak value of  $\gamma$  (~0.63) is 60 cm for Moliere scattering, and ~30 cm for Rossi-Greisen scattering. The light pattern is expected to be an underestimate since there is a contribution due to the portions of the beam at lower power. Also note that there is a significant (1.27 keV/cm) direct energy loss by the beam in air, which further reduces the Nordsieck length. Based on these considerations, our experiment indicates that the true Nordsieck length is given by the Moliere scattering formalism.  $^{17}$ 

The stability of the beam for at least 0.90 m in this case is also of interest. At injection, the number of betatron wavelengths per Nordsiek length is ~3, and some hose unstable motion was observed in some of the 1.2 m propagation cases. Thus, we conclude that three betatron wavelengths per Nordsieck length is the case for marginal stability for a beam with a 1 mm offset.

Since we have observed unstable beam nose propagation, it is instructive to calculate the expected hose convection rate. Lee has performed this calculation, $^2$  and the result is that the forward convection velocity is

$$v_{c} \sim \frac{v_{b}}{\alpha + v_{b}} \tag{28}$$

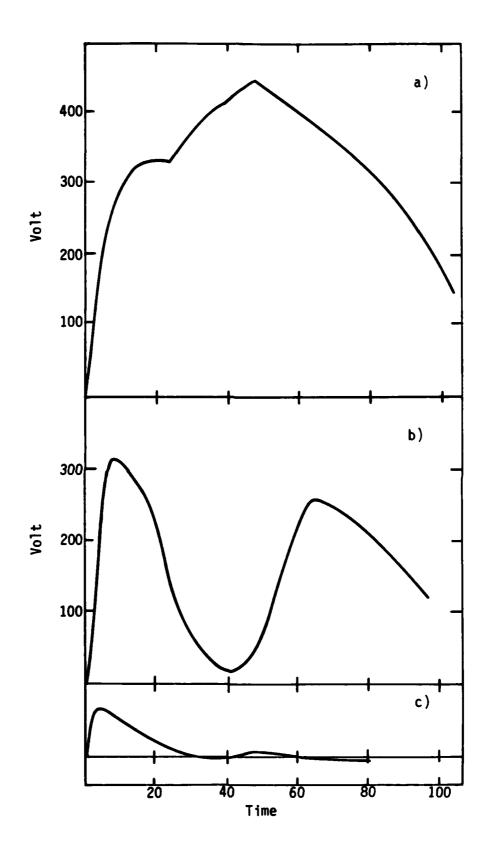


Figure 48. Approximate beam current at a) 30 cm, b) 60 cm, and c) 120 cm for 200 Torr.



Figure 49. Open shutter photograph of a beam undergoing Nordsieck expansion.

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda \beta}{\tau_d} \tag{29}$$

We have observed unstable nose propagation in a variety of circumstances. the nose velocity has been observed to be nonuniform--varying between ~0.3 and 0.8 c. We have measured  $\tau_d$  near the beam head for several sets of parameters. Referring to the data of Sec. II, we had  $\lambda_{\beta} > 15$  cm, and  $\tau_m = 4$  ns at t = 4 ns into a 15 Torr pulse. The resulting convection velocity is ~c/2 from Eq. (29), so that observation of nose-coupled hose is consistent with the fast erosion rates observed for the first 60 cm of propagation.

The decay time data for 100 Torr propagation, on the other hand, indicates that the hose convection velocity for the set of experiments discussed in this section does not reach c/2 until ~10 nanoseconds into the pulse. In order to explain our observations we must therefore conclude that either the theory is wrong, or nose-erosion is more rapid at higher pressures as suggested by the CPROP simulations. Based on the simulations we expect that the beam front velocity will be as low as 0.35 c.

Another possibility exists. If we assume that impact ionization is the dominant conductivity-generating mechanism, a certain minimum length of beam must precede (in time) the unstable point in order to raise  $\tau_D$  and hence  $v_C$ . Particles which receive transverse displacements at the foremost unstable point move forward in the nose frame to disrupt the front, since no mechanism exists to damp their transverse motion (note that by assumption  $\tau_D$  is so small ahead of the unstable point that the magnetic and beam axes are nearly coincident). This amounts to saying that ahead of the unstable point, no hose theory applies since  $\tau_D$  ~ 0, and so ballistic electron motion results in the unstable nose.

A final significant discovery of our research is the observation of hose stable propagation of a rotating electron beam over a length of 4-6  $\lambda_{\beta}$  as shown in Fig. 50. The distance shown is approximately 1 Nordsieck length, and rotation was introduced by a small magnetic field on the cathode.

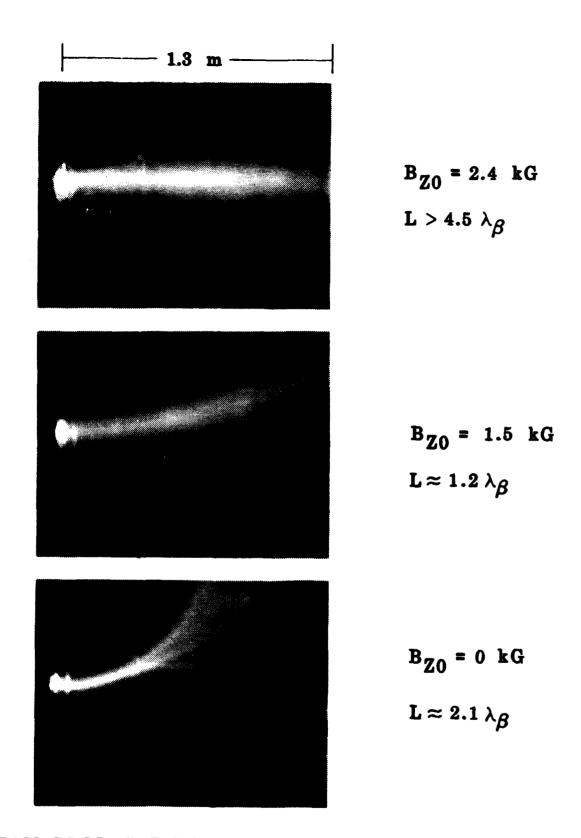


Figure 50. BEAM PROPAGATING IN FULL DENSITY AIR EXHIBIT ENHANCED HOSE STABILITY WITH ROTATION  $(B_{zo})$ 

# V. NUMERICAL SIMULATIONS OF ELECTRON BEAM HOLLOWING AND NOSE EROSION IN LOW DENSITY AIR

Four two-dimensional axisymmetric computer simulations of VISHNU beam propagation in low density air were carried out at about the time that the corresponding experiments were beginning. The computations were performed not for the purpose of detailed comparisons with or interpretations of the experiments, but rather to provide a preview of what axisymmetric phenomena might be expected. Issues of particular interest included the radial profile of the VISHNU beam in low density air, the rate of nose erosion and associated rise-time reduction, and the air density of onset of the hollowing instability. The simulations also were intended to uncover possible surprises.

The computations modeled VISHNU electron beam transport in a 10 cm radius drifttube at air densities of 1/2, 1/10, and 1/50 standard atmosphere. Runs were made in both the beam and laboratory frames. In the former the tube was of arbitrary length, while in the latter it was terminated by metal endplates 150 cm apart. The beam itself was taken to have a 20 kA current and 1 MeV energy. The current axial profile was initialized to a hyperbolic tangent rise with a 2.5 nsec scale factor, corresponding to a 10-90% current riselength of 4 nsec. Only the first 5-10 nsec of the beam pulse was followed, and this duration was quite adequate for the purpose. The beam was loaded with a Bennett radial profile of radius 1.5 cm, truncated at three Bennett radii.

Simulations were carried out using the particle-in-cell beam propagation code CPROP. 18 Although at least three other propagation codes exist, CPROP is the best suited to relatively low energy beams, such as the VISHNU beam, because it does not employ the usual paraxial particle motion or frozen field approximations. Additionally, the code's Moliere scattering algorithm is important for properly treating Nordsieck expansion of the VISHNU beam at higher air densities. 17

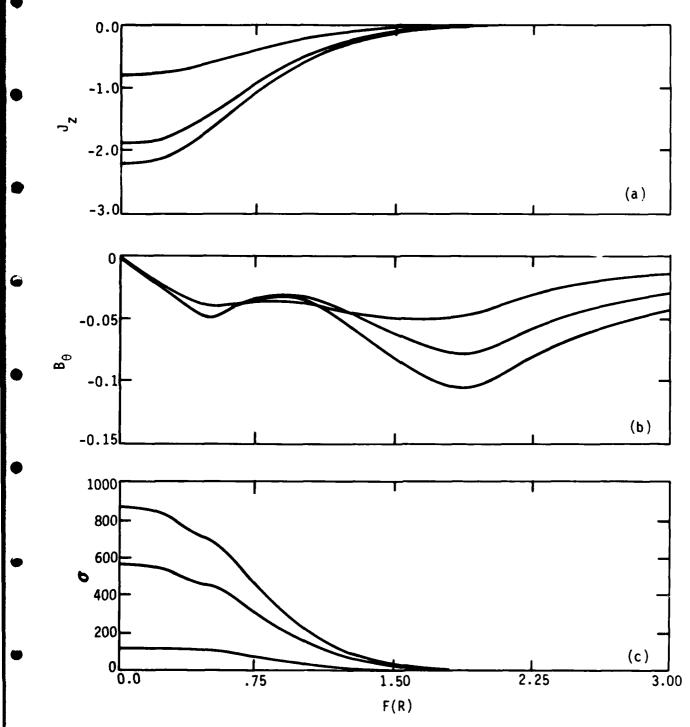


Figure 51. Three crossections of initial (a) beam current, (b) magnetic field, and (c) air conductivity from 1/50 atmosphere simulation showing field modification due to broad conductivity profile. (Exponential zoning in radius)

Properly modeling conductivity generation in air below 1/10 atmosphere is a serious problem in all propagation codes. The Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory PHOENIX package (including recombination) was utilized in these simulations despite its acknowledged limitations at very low densities. Subsequently, we modified the Science Applications, Inc. BMCOND routines for use in CPROP,  $^{20}$  and we hope to repeat a few of these VISHNU runs to see what differences occur. Nonetheless, quantitative agreement between experimentally and computationally determined conductivities in low density air should not be expected until non-local ionization and secondary electron transport phenomena are properly included.  $^{21-23}$ 

Co-moving beam frame simulations of the first 150 cm of the beam were carried out at the three densities listed above primarily to investigate the threshold for hollowing instabilities in the beam nose and secondarily to obtain the rate of nose erosion. Although at each density a Bennett profile was loaded, at the two lower densities the beam rearranged itself radially, passing through a state in which the net current reversed direction near the nominal Bennett radius in the well pinched part of the beam. Apparently, the early-time current reversal resulted from a high return current fraction and a conductivity profile wider than the beam profile. Figure 51 shows typical crossections of the beam current, plasma conductivity, and azimuthal magnetic field at 1/50 atmosphere. The broadened conductivity profile was in turn due to a combination of avalanche and recombination. The beam soon settled down to a slightly wider profile in the 1/10 atmosphere run. This same evolution appeared to be developing in the 1/50 atmosphere run as well, but before a steady state could be reached a strong instability occured in the beam nose, soon disrupting the entire 150 cm beam segment.

TABLE 1. Beam front velocity, inductive field strength, and net current from simulations of 20 kA, 1 MeV VISHNU beam at reduced air density.

Run	Density (atm)	<sup>v</sup> f <sup>/v</sup> b (theo)	<sup>v</sup> f <sup>/v</sup> b (sim)	E/P (kV/cm-atm)	I <sub>n</sub> /I
18	0.1	0.62	0.41	160	0.5
1C	0.02	0.82	0.77	1300	0.3

The nose erosion rate was large in all three cases. Table 1 summarizes our findings, comparing the beam front velocity as determined from the simulations with an analytical estimate  $^6$ 

$$\frac{v_f}{v_b} = \left(1 + L \frac{v_N}{\gamma}\right)^{-1} - \frac{v_N}{2\gamma} \tag{30}$$

where  $v_b$  = 0.94 is the single particle velocity. The net current  $v_N$  is taken from just behind the pinch point in the simulations. The inductance

$$L = 1 + 2 \ln (R_c/R_b)$$
 (31)

is based on the Bennett and drifttube radii, L=4.7. Typically, L ~ 6 in an infinite medium. The dominant, first term on the right side of (30) takes account of inductive energy loss at the pinch point, while the second term is a small correction due to betatron oscillations. This erosion rate expression has no contribution due to scattering. The effect of scattering on erosion has been estimated analytically only in the limit of low rates (L  $\nu_{\rm N}/\gamma \ll 1$ ), the which certainly does not pertain here. Comparison of analytical and computational predictions for beam front velocity shows that the former systematically exceeds the latter. At higher densities this discrepancy undoubtedly is due to neglect of scattering in (30). At lower densities particle bunching near the pinch point may increase the erosion rate slightly in the simulations. (Experience with ETA beam simulations indicates that electron bunching can increase the erosion rate by as much as 20%. Agreement between theory and computation is satisfactory in view of these uncertainties.

Good experimental data is available to contrast with the 1/50 atmosphere simulation only, due to severe hose instabilities at the two higher densities. The measured beam front velocity, as discussed thoroughly elsewhere in this report, was very low while the beam propagated the first few

ten's of cm. Whether this was caused by blowoff of low energy electrons at the beginning of the pulse or by other, unknown reasons is unclear. In any event, the relative beam velocity reaches 0.65-0.70 for propagation distances beyond 80 cm. The source of this discrepancy between experiment and simulation almost certainly is the conductivity model. Consistant with this supposition, CPROP predicts a return current fraction of about 0.3 in the beam body, while a value approaching 0.5 is measured experimentally. Indeed, extrapolating the higher return current fraction to the nose region gives a front velocity agreeing much better with the experimental figure.

Nose erosion reduces not only the beam front velocity but also the current risetime. After 100 cm of propagation the risetime had dropped to about 0.5 and 1.0 nsec for the 1/10 and 1/2 atmosphere cases, respectively. Over the same distance the risetime in the 1/50 atmosphere run decreased to of order 0.2 nsec, this smaller value presumably due to reduced scattering and the associated axial bunching of particles. Note, however, that the effective risetime entering into inductive field estimates is bounded from below by the transit time across the conductivity channel,  $R_{\rm C}$  in (32). The riselength of the azimuthal magnetic field in the simulations never was less than about 2  $R_{\rm C}^{-1}$ . This estimate is supported by VISHNU experiments, for which magnetic field probes gave 1 nsec risetimes after some propagation distance, while Faraday cups gave lower values.

Only the 1/50 atmosphere simulation was unstable. Strong hollowing developed in the beam nose after about 100 cm of propagation and moved back into the pulse at roughly the beam velocity. Within an additional 200 cm of propagation the entire 150 cm beam segment being simulated became severely distorted. The unstable wave frequency was initially 0.071 cm<sup>-1</sup> but steadily increased in time for fixed positions in the beam. Figure 52 illustrates this. The monopole decay length was about 170 cm at a position 30 cm behind the pinch point at early times, but varied dramatically in

space and time as the instability developed. Although there was some tendency for the magnetic field to reverse most strongly somewhat off axis, it was insufficient to break the beam into multiple annuli.

Table 1 also lists the ratios of peak axial field to air density and of net to beam current. According to the standard criterion, E/P>130 kV/cm-atm and  $I_n/I<0.5$ , the 1/10 atmosphere simulation was at the instability threshold. The rapid erosion may have had a stabilizing influence. Overall, the simulation results support the emperical criterion.

Actual experiments are, of course, performed within drift chambers of finite length, stationary in the laboratory. The 1/50 atmosphere case was, therefore, repeated in the lab frame with a 150 cm long drifttube. Results agreed qualitatively with the beam frame simulation at early times. Instability developed after about 100 cm of propagation, leaving a single large amplitude standing wave near the far end of the tube. The wavenumber, 0.12 cm<sup>-1</sup>, was somewhat larger than expected, 0.08 cm<sup>-1</sup>, but may have been influenced by the proximity of the metal endplate. The standing wave decayed very slowly after the beam head left the chamber; the monopole decay length at that time was about 800 cm. Also, at about that same time a gentle hollowing developed throughout the first half of the drifttube. (This is qualitatively similar to the unpinched phase of propagation observed below 15 Torr.) Whether the final state of the beam is better described as a saturated weak instability or as a change in the equilibrium is unclear and perhaps irrelevant. After 10 nsec the final profile was moderately hollow, as shown in Figure 53. Some of the experimental data suggest similiar behavior.

Figures 54, 55 and 56 are snapshots of the beam electron distribution and magnetic field contours at 3.33, 6.67, and 10.0 sec. (Recall that non-uniform radial zoning is employed in the plots, as well as in the computations.) The late-time hollowing, stationary in the lab frame, probably is the most interesting aspect of these simulations; additional investigations seem warranted.

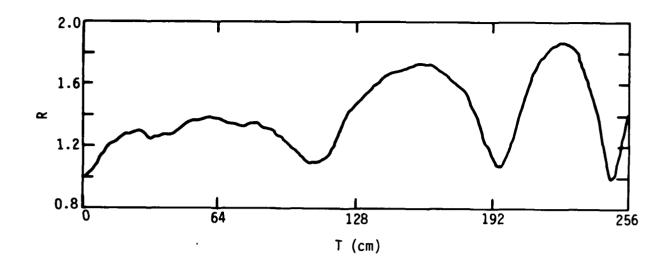


Figure 52. Oscillation of beam half-radius at a point 100 cm behind nose in 1/50 atmosphere simulation.

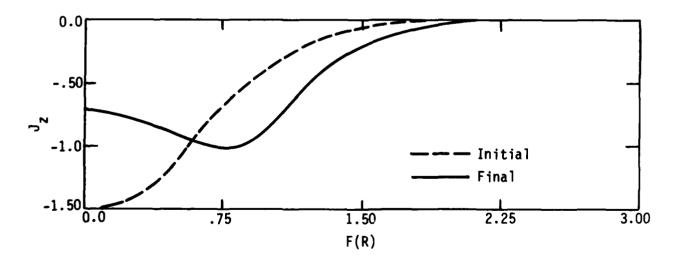


Figure 53. Initial (dashed curve) and final (solid curve) beam current profiles from low density laboratory frame simulation. (Exponential in radius)

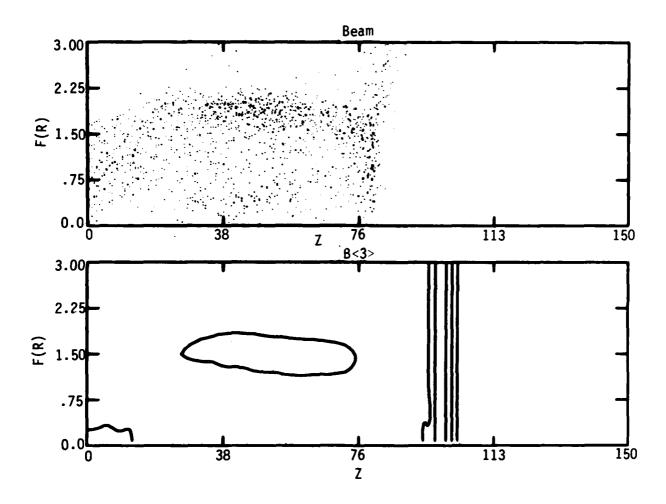


Figure 54. Beam particle configuration and magnetic field contours 3.33 nsec after beam injection in low density laboratory frame simulations.

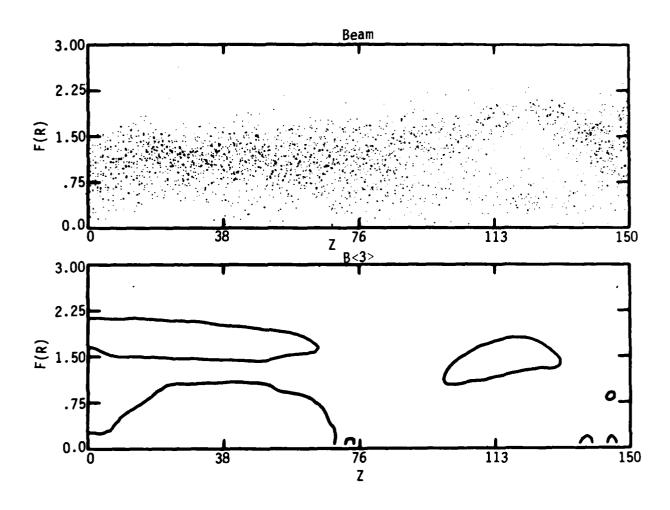


Figure 55. Beam particle configuration and magnetic field contours 6.67 nsec after beam injection in low density laboratory frame simulations.

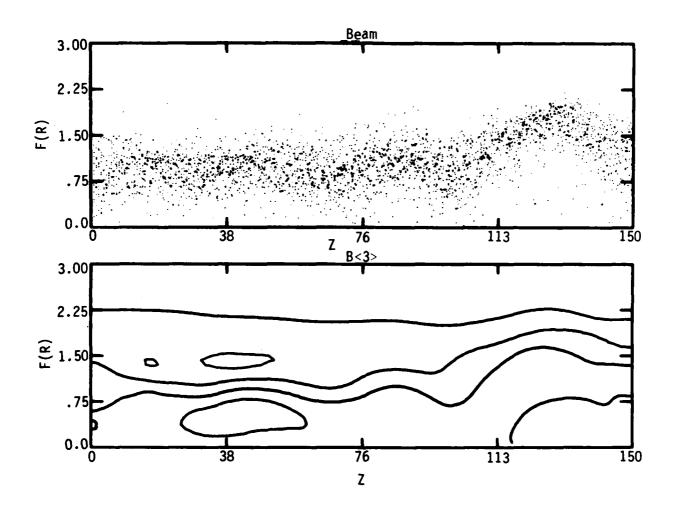


Figure 56. Beam particle configuration and magnetic field contours 10.0 nsec after beam injection in low density laboratory frame simulations.

One two-dimensional numerical simulation was conducted to compare plasma decay times based on a frequently used air chemistry model with experiment. The calculation was performed using the fully relativistic code described previously. This initial investigation was conducted using full density Albuquerque air at low current. In this regime the air chemistry models should be most accurate. Experimental data obtained in this regime showed a generally well behaved beam in the propagation cell which exhibited reasonably two-dimensional behavior.

To make the comparison a 1.0 MeV beam with a 0.5 cm Bennett radius truncated at 2 Bennett radii was injected into a propagation chamber 25 cm long and 10.05 cm in diameter. Air pressure was set at 630 Torr. The air chemistry model used was the Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory PHOENIX package. Beam current was approximated using simple functional relations to model the experimentally measured values. The simulation was run for the first 34 ns of the beam pulse. A hyperbolic tangent with a 7.5 ns risetime was used to initiate the pulse. This was followed by a sine squared pulse beginning at 16 ns and rising to a peak current of 5.5 kA. The quarter cycle time for this portion of the pulse was 9 ns.

Beam behavior was very similar to that observed in experiment. The beam radius at the endplate started at larger than 1 cm then pinched to approximately 0.5 cm as the beam current increased. Beam current and net current measured at 18.8 cm from injection are shown in Fig. 57 along with the corresponding experimental traces. As can be easily seen agreement between simulation and experiment is quite good through the first 30 ns of the beam pulse.

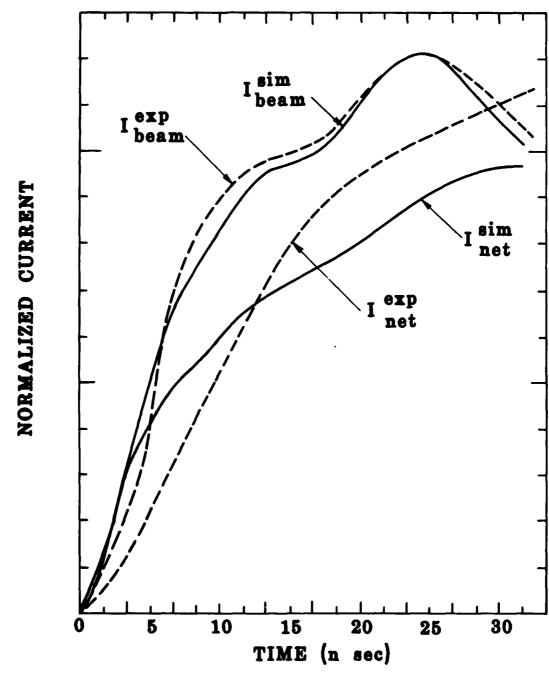


Figure 57. COMPARISON OF CPROP AXISYMMETRIC CODE RESULTS AND EXPERIMENT FOR ATMOSPHERIC AIR PROPAGATION (Z = 18.75cm)

#### VI. CONCLUSION

The goal of the study was to observe the beam nose propagation, resistive hose instability and their interaction. We have completed these tasks. The main results are:

- 1) The nose-coupled hose effect exists and its existence is correlated with nonuniform or slow beam front velocities ( $v < 0.5 v_b$ ).
- 2) Beam front motion exhibits nonuniform features, and is slow near the injection point.
- 3) Fast rise (1 nanosecond) beams can be generated in a number of ways and generation of such beams appear to be associated with the slow front velocity phase.
- 4) The plasma decay time can be conveniently measured--it is found to increase linearly throughout the pulse.
- 5) The dominant hose frequency is controlled by the plasma decay time according to  $\omega \sim 0.85~\tau p$ . This result is within reasonable range of the theoretical value of  $\omega \sim 0.6/\tau p$ .
  - 6) Hose growth lengths are in good agreement with theory.
- 7) A number of new and useful diagnostic techniques have been developed including the "penny" probes, triangle detectors, and plasma decay measurement.
  - 8) A rotating beam has intriguing hose stability properties.
- 9) CPROP simulations are in good agreement with experiment at 630 Torr.

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# APPENDIX A

# APPENDIX A FX-100 and FX-25 EXPERIMENTS

# A. Propagation Experiments

The FX-100 low pressure air propagation experiments were performed in several different experimental runs, each with the specified diagnostics needed to address a limited set of particular issues. This strategy was necessary because of the limited number of data channels that were available for our use. Furthermore, the impending demise of the FX-100 generator was always foremost in our thinking, and in many cases we hurried through an experimental run more rapidly than we would have liked, in order to complete all the baseline measurements before the accelerator was decommissioned.

Our first set of experimental runs was designed to delineate the stable-propagation pressure window with carbon calorimetry, while at the same time accumulating meaurements of the spatial current distribution with the charge-collector array. Other diagnostics fielded to provide corroboration of the current distribution included radiochromic-film dosimetry, TLD arrays, and open-shutter photography. Because of our discovery of the unexpected "halo" of current surrounding the central beam, we devoted a number of shots to extensive investigation into its cause. These included the use of a series of carbon collimators at the anode foil in order to eliminate the possibility that shank emission in the diode was causing the halo current. It was not.

Because the propagation pressure window is also delineated by a minimum in the net current, we devoted a limited number of shots to measurements of net and beam currents at various axial positions. The importance of the channel conductivity and the possibility of using visible light emitted to obtain information about the parameter led us to design an

extensive series of runs devoted to optical diagnostics, for example, spectroscopy and time-resolved streak and framing photography. Finally, a limited test of a compact magnetic beta-spectrometer designed and constructed at Los Alamos National Laboratory was made in order to test the feasibility of using this design in other low-pressure propagation experiments.

The diagnostics used and pressures surveyed in these experiments is tabulated in Appendix B. These experiments produced a large bank of data, all of which has not been fully analyzed.

## B. Simulations

Under a separate contract a linearized, three-dimensional, fully electromagnetic particle-in-cell code (KMRAD) was written to investigate resistive instabilities. KMRAD was used to predict instability growth and convection rates in the beam body for the parameters of the FX-100 experiments. Under yet another contract MRC developed a propagation code, CPROP, based on the two-dimensional, relativistic, electromagnetic, particle-incell beam simulation code CCUBE. CPROP is being used to investigate the physics of the nose-coupled hollowing instability, including the effects of nose blowoff at injection, ohmic energy losses, conductivity generation, and return current formation. This code treats blowoff, ohmic losses, beam hollowing, and return currents by direct self-consistent numerical integration of the Maxwell equations and the single particle relativistic equa-Conductivity has been based on models developed at tions of motion. Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory. Improved models more appropriate for the low-pressure experiments at AFWL are now being developed at MRC for DARPA and will be added to CPROP in due course. Details of the comparisons between KMRAD and CPROP simulations and the experiments are to be found in Appendix E.

# C. Experimental Results and Discussion

In both the FX-25 and FX-100 experiments the energy deposition in a calorimeter at the end of the drift tube was used to define the propagation window in pressure. This measurement integrates over both particle energy and current and is not necessarily indicative of electron kinetic energy loss. For example, we found in our experiments that the low and high pressure limits of the propagation window were largely determined by loss of particles from the beam, rather than by beam-electron kinetic energy loss. Figure 1 shows the beam-current density measured on axis at the end of the FX-25 drift tube at different pressures. Here one can clearly see the definition of the propagation window at high pressures through the erosion of the beam head. The current history measured at the diode can be overlaid on these data as an envelope, but has been omitted for clarity. It is also evident that there is a regime of pressure in which both nose-erosion and tail-loss are simultaneously limiting the beam charge transport through the 3 m drift tube. The propagation window for the FX-100 is shown in Fig. 2. Two measurements of net current for pressures on either side of the window "center" for the FX-100 beam are shown in Fig. 3. It appears that noseerosion was not so significant for this beam as for the FX-25; however, it must be remembered that the FX-100 pulsewidth was ~6 times that of the FX-25 to begin with, and, therefore, the loss of calorimetrically measured transported energy resulting from equivalent erosion of transported charge would not be so large a fraction of the total in the FX-100 experiments as in the FX-25 experiments. The fact that erosion of the FX-100 beam did not play so large a role as for the FX-25 beam resulted in the comparatively gentle decrease on the low-energy side of the window. The erosion of the beam head can be seen in streak photographs taken at pressures lower than the window center. These are shown in Fig. 4. In Fig. 5 we show streak photographs taken at pressures on the high side of the window, and here it is clearly seen that the loss of the beam tail is the result of hosing of the beam into the wall prior to its reaching the observation port at 4.5 m.

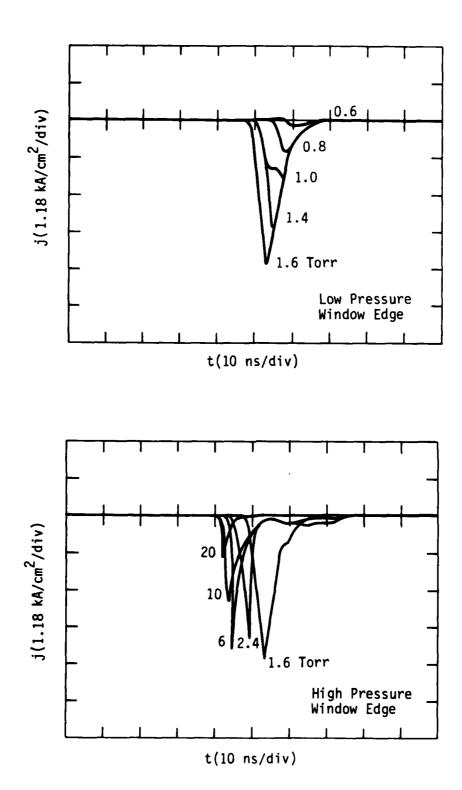
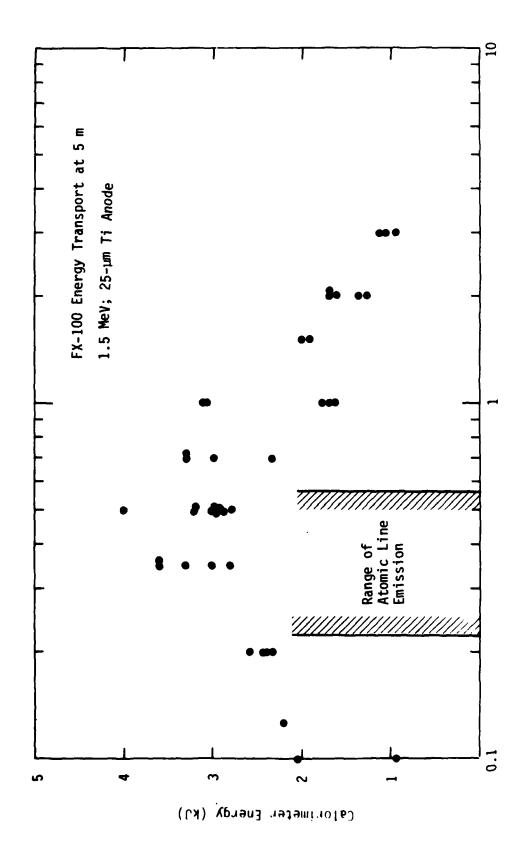
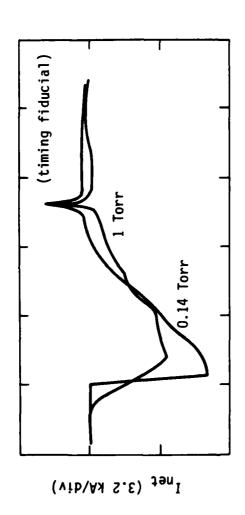


Figure 1. FX-25 beam current density on axis for different pressures. Maximum energy transport was at 1.6 Torr. The current density near the diode had a waveform that approximated the envelope of these signals. The erosion of the beam nose is clearly evident at pressures below 1.6 Torr (upper). At higher pressures both nose erosion and tail loss resulting from hosing are evident (lower).



FX-100 propagation window in air for 5-m propagation length. In the range indicated there was intense emission of atomic line radiation as well as the characteristic molecular band emission. Figure 2.

Air Pressure (Torr)



Time (100 ns/div)

Figure 3. Net current measured in FX-100 propagation experiments at high and low air pressures in the propagation window. The pulse sharpening seen at pressures lower than that for maximum energy transport (~0.5 Torr) is thought to result from rapid loss of the beam front and subsequent slow erosion.

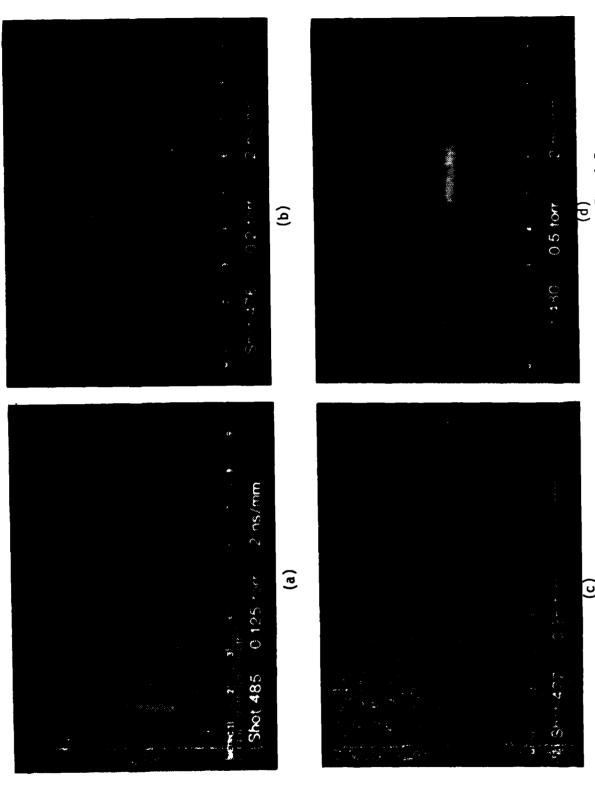
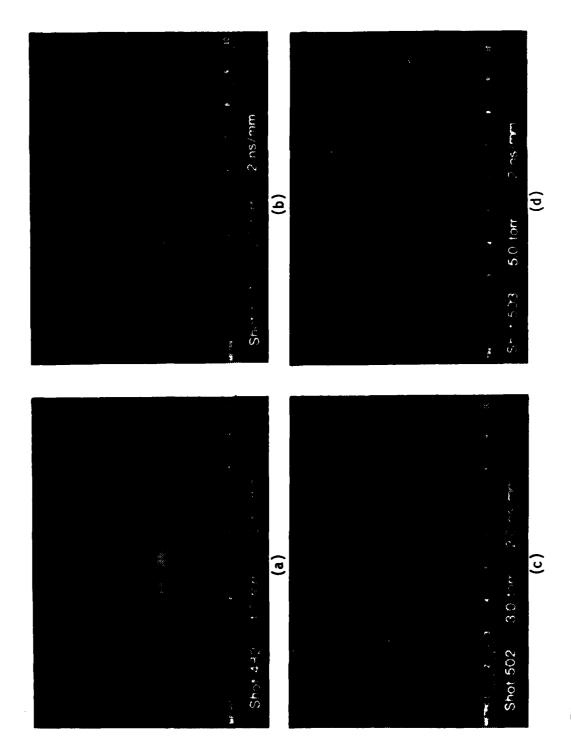


Figure 4. Streak-camera photographs of the beam-excited air emission at Z = 4.5-m as pressure is increased from below the propagation pressure window (a) to the center of the window (d). (Ignore the image converter-tube blemish in the far left of each photograph.) The beam head is at the left of each streak (taken through a vertical slit. The delay in start of emission in (a) as compared through a vertical slit. The delay in start of emission in (a) as compared with (d) is presumably the result of erosion at lower pressures.



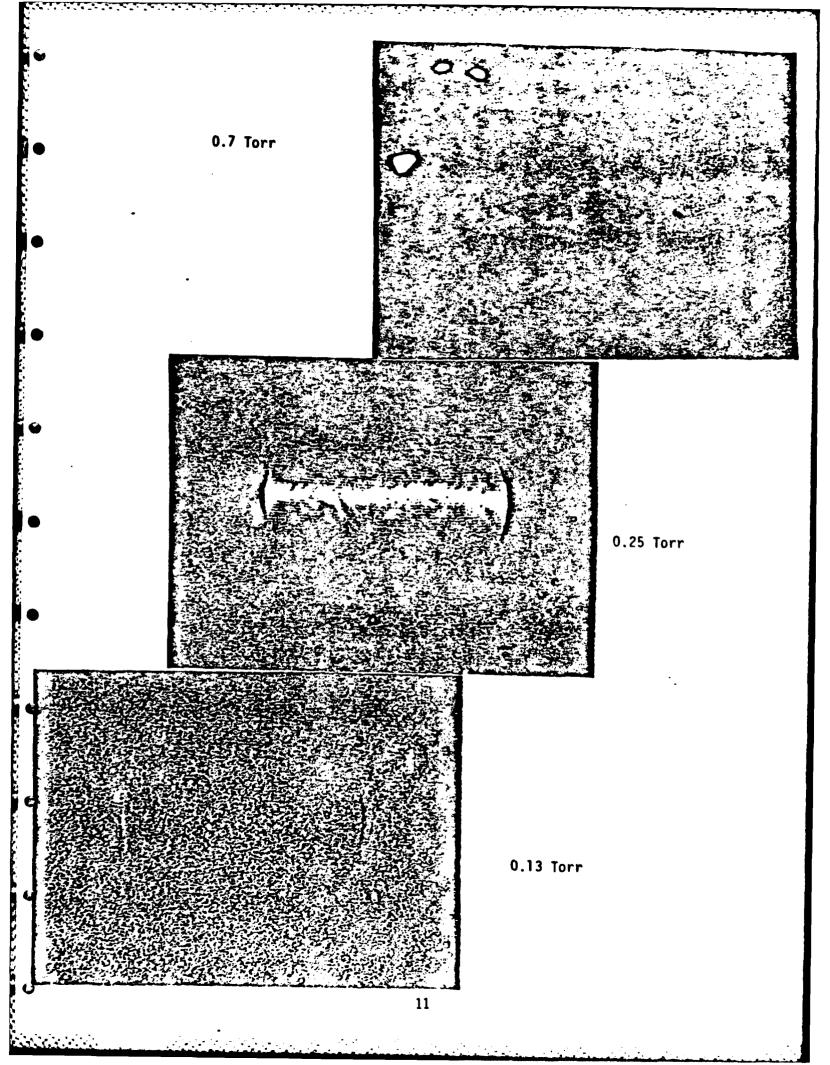
Streak-camera photographs of the FX-100 beam at 4.5-m as air pressure is increased above the propagation window showing loss of the tail of the beam. Figures (b) and (c) show especially clear evidence of hosing in the tail. Figure 5.

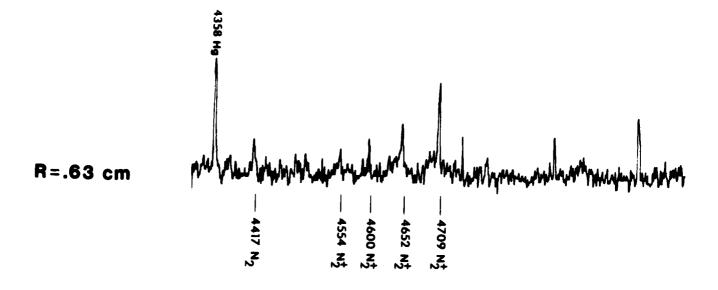
Note especially that the beam in Fig. 5b appears to be convective, and that in Fig. 5c a piece of the beam has been detached from the head by the extreme motion of the hose. We should appreciate that we always detected a small piece of the beam head transported to the end of the tube even in the presence of the most violent hosing at pressures in excess of 20 Torr. A small piece of the beam head propagating significant distances on axis has apparently been observed in full density air propagation experiments<sup>2</sup>, 3 on the large accelerators, and there was some circumstantial evidence for this in our full density FX-25 experiments. This was true for both FX experiments, and may be an initial indication of the lack of nose-hose coupling at these experimental parameters. It should be mentioned that this effect has been observed in many prior propagation experiments.  $^{1}$   $^{2}$   $^{3}$ 

In the FX-100 experiments the pressure window for propagation was also delineated by vivid displays of visible emission as is illustrated by the open-shutter photographs in Fig. 6. Spatially resolved spectral measurements of the light emitted showed that in a concentrated region near the axis much of the emission was from dissociated and ionized nitrogen (Fig. 7). Because it requires ~2.4 eV to form this species, we infer a high energy density for the ionized gas on axis. The radial extent of the high energy region is much less than the radius characteristic of the Bennett-like beam current profile (a~3 cm). Although these spectra do not constitute a direct measurement of the channel conductivity, they are suggestive of a hotter and hence more highly-ionized and conductive gas on the axis.

The propagation window was also characterized by the appearance of a virulent azimuthally symmetric instability that caused a large fraction of the beam current to be expelled from the central channel into an annular "halo" region. This thin shell of current then propagated with the residue of the central core to the end of the drift tube. This phenomenon was observed with radiochromic foils, open-shutter photography, streak photography, and our array of fast risetime subminiature charge collectors. The

Figure 6. FX-100 open shutter photographs at Z = 4.5 m and pressures spanning the propagation window showing the molecular band emission at high and low pressures and atomic (0) line emission at intermediate pressures. (Beam propagating left to right, circular aperture 17.5 cm diameter). Note the apparent annular halo of emission surrounding the beam.





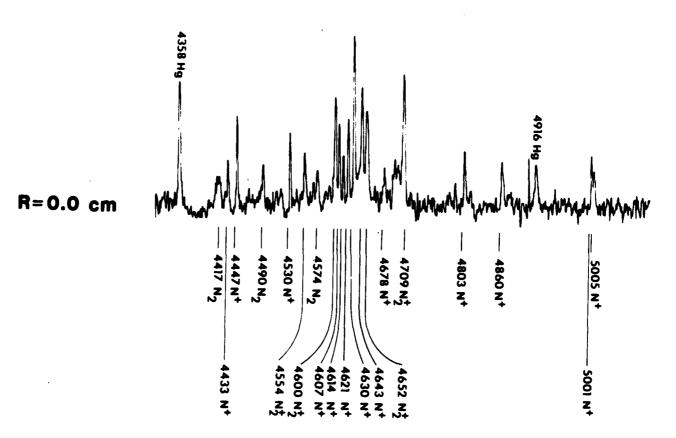
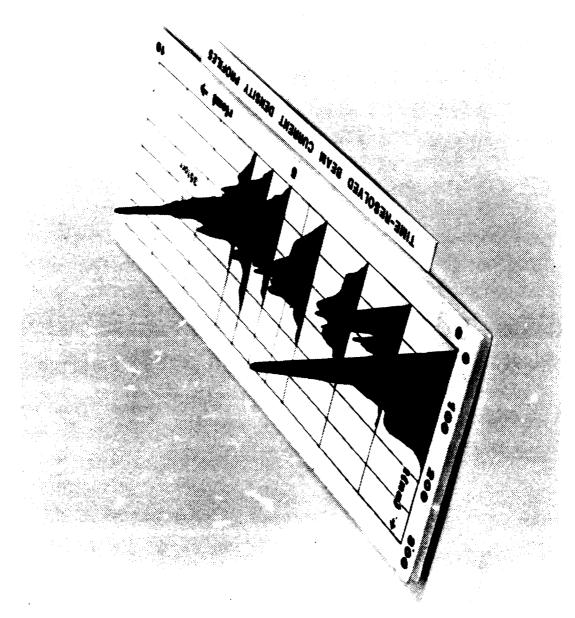


Figure 7. Atomic emission observed in the propagation window (p = 0.35 Torr) is confined to region near the beam axis well inside of the beam Bennett radius (a  $\sim$  3 cm).

radiochromic (blue cellophane) film measurements were made with 125 µm Ti foils shielding the film from exposure to any electrons with kinetic energy below ~180 keV. The same titanium foil thickness was used to shield the array of charge collectors. A time and space resolved plot of the current density at a distance less than 1 m from the diode is shown in Fig. 8. The data plotted in this figure clearly show the evolution of the annular shell at a time late in the beam pulse. An example of a radiochromic exposure can be seen in Fig. 9. Many other examples of the time history of the spatial distribution of current associated with this thin-shell hollowing instability can be found throughout the appendices. The hollow current carrying shell is also evident in both time-integrated and time resolved photographs. It is seen in the open-shutter photograph in Fig. 6 that was taken at 0.25 Torr and in the photograph taken at 0.7 Torr. Figure 10 is a streak photograph showing a well developed shell of current. shutter photographs show other rather spectacular effects in addition to the hollowing. It is of interest to resolve these in time to try to under-In particular, the intense atomic emission concenstand their causes. trated near the axis persists for very long times after the passage of the beam, as seen from the framing camera sequence in Fig. 11. The time integration of this afterglow radiation accounts for the "hot spots" seen in the open shutter pictures. The most likely explanation for the persistence of this afterglow radiation is the extremely slow deionization rates for the ionized atomic nitrogen in the central core. Also evident in Fig. 10 is the apparent formation of the "streamers" during the latter part of the Additional observations about the streamers are that they beam pulse. always open in the direction of beam propagation, as if they were ejected from the channel by primaries, and the opening angle is more acute near the These might be particle tracks "exposed" by the high E/P environment, they could be instabilities in the beam, or they could be low-energy electron exposures of electromagnetic-field effects. Which of these, or other, causes is responsible for the vivid streamer displays is highly speculative at this juncture. The streamers may be masked at earlier times

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Time-resolved beam current density profile at Z = 0.81-m.  $p_0$  = 0.35 Torr. Note development of "halo" current of high energy ( $\gtrsim$  150 keV) electrons at late time in beam pulse. Figure 8.



Radiochronic (blue cellophane) foil exposed to FX-100 beam after propagating 5 m in 0.5-Torr air. Note the bleaching at large radii resulting from annular "halo" of electrons.

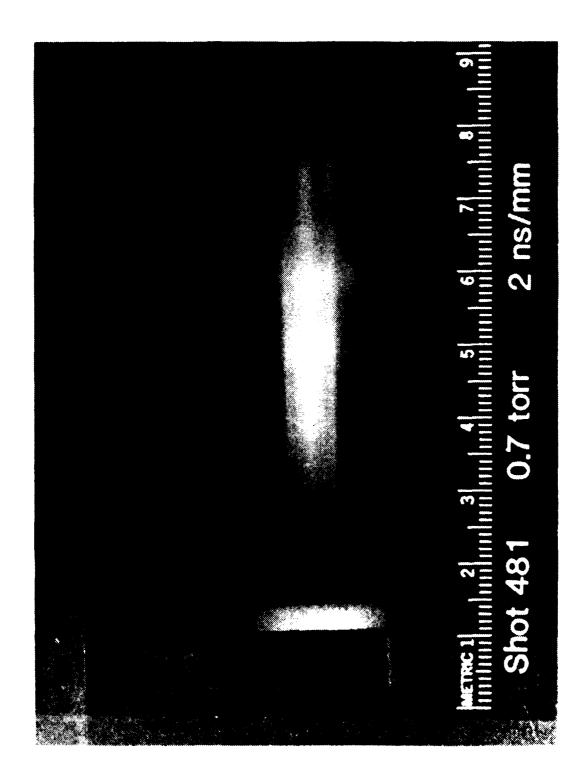
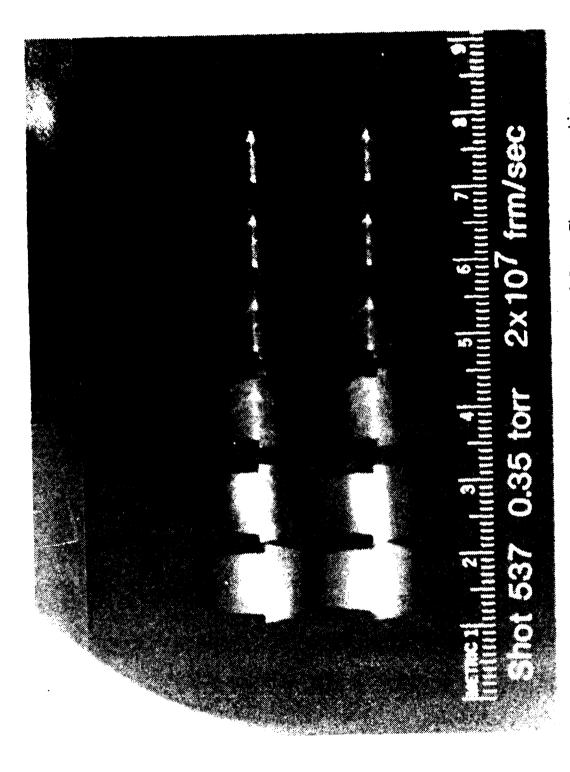


Figure 10. Imacon streak-camera picture taken through a vertical slit at 4.5 m showing emission from fully developed annular halo.



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Figure 11. Framing-camera photograph of FX-100 beam at Z=4.5-m. The exposure time for each frame is 10 ns. This shows the apparent development of a hollowing instability late in the beam pulse, and the persistence of the emission on axis, compared with the rapidly quenched emission from the beam body.

by direct beam excited emission, but on the basis of these photographs one cannot be certain that they are not formed during the switching off of the space-charge neutralized beam current, which may lead to pinching of the remaining unbalanced charge channel.

The appearance of a thin-shell hollowing instability in the pressure regime where avalanching provides an important contribution to the conductivity, which may have a profile more peaked than the beam, and where the current is highly neutralized is in qualitative agreement with existing theory and simulations. However, the > 20 ns delay into the beam pulse before the instability onset is not clear. It may be that this is simply the delay for the conductivity to form the required profile for instability, or the result of a pathological change in the diode characteristics late in the pulse.

Finally, a word about out FX-25 beam extraction experiments is in A marked threshold for the stabilization of the full density air hose instability was observed when the preparation cell pressure was reduced below 1 Torr. Because there appeared to be no associated threshold in the erosion-caused pulse sharpening in the drift tube, it is unlikely that this was the dominant mechanism for stabilization, although it may be a necessary ingredient. The same may be said for phase-mixed damping of initial oscillations that are shock-excited at the diode. reason for the threshold is the matching of  $\lambda_R$  inside the cell and just outside of the extraction foil in full density air. This implies matching both the beam radius and net current. Our diagnostics were insufficient to provide conclusive evidence for matching at the stabilization threshold in this limited set of exploratory tests of the use of a beam conditioning The effect is shown in the open shutter photographs in Fig. 12 (3 Torr in preparation cell), and Fig. 13 (0.6 Torr in preparation cell). Note that even when violently unstable in Fig. 12, there is evidence for a part of the beam transporting straight to the wall (as indicated by the



Figure 12. Open shutter photograph of the FX-25 beam extracted into full-density air (630 Torr) through a 25 m Kapton foil after drifting through 3 m of 3 Torr air.



Figure 13. Open shutter photograph of the FX-25 beam extracted into full density air after drifting through 3 m of 0.6 Torr air.

fluorescence of the wall on axis). In Fig. 13 the stable propagation length is limited by the wall to about 5 or 6 betatron wavelengths. These experiments show that there is great promise for the use of the preparation cell technique for providing greater control of the beam stability properties.

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- 2. R. B. Miller, private communication.
- 3. M. C. Clark, private communication.

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## APPENDIX B

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During recent low-pressure air propagation experiments with the FX-100 electron beam (E $\sim$ 1.5 MeV, I $\sim$ 40 kA, $\Delta t \sim$ 120 as, p $\approx$ 0.1 - 20 Torr) several diagnostics that used visible light emission were employed. These included time-integrated (open-shutter) photography, time-resolved (streak and framing) photography, and time-integrated spectroscopy. In this report we develop a theoretical framework for interpretation of these diagnostics and discuss the results of the measurements. (Continued)				

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We find that for propagation experiments in general there may be large contributions to the observed emission from both delta rays and the ionized-channel electrons. The plasma electron contribution is sensitive to temperature and to distortion of the tail of the distribution through high E/p effects. The emitted light can be used to observe the beam current in regions not dominated by high E/p because of the proportionality of the descendent electron density to the beam electron density. However, radial resolution of the current density profile may be blurred by the contribution of delta rays ejected at large angles. The temporal response of the emitted light can be expected to faithfully reproduce the beam current history only when the pressure is higher than a minimum, which depends on the highest frequency of interest in the beam current.

From the spectral measurements we have identified observed red emission to be atomic oxygen at 6157A, we have identified a large number of  $N_2$ ,  $N_2^{\dagger}$ , and  $N^{\dagger}$  emissions, and we have shown the atomic line radiation to emanate from a region of limited radial extent. In the streak photographs we have seen some results of the magnetic field collapse at the end of the beam. We have observed that the molecular emissions temporally track the beam and that the atomic emission persists at late times, after the beam has passed. The framing photos also show the collapse of the field and radiating volume, and the long time history of the atomic emissions.

### **ABSTRACT**

During the low-pressure air propagation experiments with the FX-100 electron beam (E~ 1.5 MeV, I ~ 40 kA,  $\Delta t$  ~ 120 ns, p ~ 0.1 - 20 Torr) several diagnostics that used visible light emission were employed. These included time-integrated (open shutter) photography, time-resolved (streak and framing) photography, and time-integrated spectroscopy. In this report we develop a theoretical framework for interpretation of these diagnostics and discuss the results of the measurements.

We find that for propagation experiments in general there may be large contributions to the observed emission from both delta rays and the ionized-channel electrons. The plasma electron contribution is sensitive to temperature and to distortion of the tail of the distribution through high E/p effects. The emitted light can be used to observe the beam current in regions not dominated by high E/p because of the proportionality of the descendent electron density to the beam electron density. However, radial resolution of the current density profile may be blurred by the contribution of delta rays ejected at large angles. The temporal response of the emitted light can be expected to faithfully reproduce the beam current history only when the pressure is higher than a minimum, which depends on the highest frequency of interest in the beam current.

From the spectral measurements we have identified observed red emission to be atomic oxygen at 6157A, we have identified a large number of  $N_2$ ,  $N_2^+$  and  $N^+$  emissions, and we have shown the atomic line radiation to emanate from a region of limited radial extent. In the streak photographs we have seen some results of the magnetic field collapse at the end of the beam. We have observed that the molecular emissions temporally track the beam and that the atomic emission persists at late times, after the beam has passed. The framing photos also show the collapse of the field and radiating volume, and the long history of the atomic emissions.

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

Observation of visible light emission is a commonly used diagnostic technique in high-intensity relativistic electron-beam propagation experiments. Photography is an obvious and useful way of observing the behavior of self-luminous experiments, and much information has been obtained from both high-speed and time-integrated photography. For example, estimates of the hose-instability growth length; betatron wavelength, and beam radius have been obtained from photographic records. $^{1-3}$  Visible light emitted in beam experiments has also been observed by other methods such as wavelength-filtered fast photodetectors measuring the total light emitted from a region of limited axial extent. 4 For some beam and air pressure parameter regimes, these measurements were found to be correlated with the total beam current, which suggests that this technique could be employed as a nonperturbing beam-current monitor ("optical Faraday-cup"). 5-6 Furthermore, if the excitation of air fluorescence by primary beam electrons is indeed the dominant source of light, then the analysis of high-speed streak or framing camera photographs would be a convenient method for obtaining time-resolved details of the beam current density distribution.

As indicated, there is a wealth of information to be gained from the proper interpretation of optical emissions. The purpose of this report is two-fold: to develop a rough theoretical basis for such an interpretation, and to present the results of optical measurements from recent FX-100 experiments. In Section II the underlying assumptions about optical emissions are reviewed, excitation rechanisms other than by the primary beam identified and the importance of these mechanisms estimated.

We will show that for propagation experiments in general there may be significant contributions to the emitted light resulting from delta rays (knock on electrons) and ionized-channel electrons. The contribution from the channel-plasma electrons is sensitive to the temperature and can be enhanced by distortions of the high-energy tail of the distribution by large electric fields. We will develop the necessary conditions on the air pressure that must be met in order to reproduce the beam current temporal history with high fidelity. We will conclude that because of the proportionality of the descendent-electron distribution to the beam electron distribution, reproduction of the beam current is possible within these constraints, although delta rays can lead to a blurring of the radial current profile. In Section III experimental results are presented and discussed. These results include spectra, streak photographs and framing photographs. Observed red emission from the low-pressure FX-100 experiments was spectrally identified as an atomic oxygen line. Additionally, we identified a large number of singly ionized nitrogen lines confined in a region much smaller than the beam radius, as well as the typical beam-excited molecular nitrogen bands seen over the entire radial extent of the beam. The atomic emissions were seen to persist for times much longer than the passage of the beam, leading to an "over-exposure" of persistent stationary structure in the time-integrated open-shutter photographs.

### II. THEORY OF VISIBLE EMISSION FROM ELECTRON BEAMS PROPAGATING IN AIR

In high-density air propagation experiments with  $p_0$  greater than a few Torr the emission is dominated by the molecular nitrogen purple-blue light emissions. Of these, the  $N_2^+$  first negative (1-) band emission at 3914 Å and the  $N_2$  second positive (2+) band emission at 3371 Å are transitions that have been suggested as useful for beam diagnostics. The excited states of these transitions are rapidly quenched and it is assumed that the time history of these transitions accurately reflects the time history of the electron density that excites the molecules. With this assumption and if the emission results from only the beam primaries, the light emitted from an axially limited region measures the beam current and accurately maps the radial distribution of the high-energy beam.

Possible sources of error in these interpretations can result if there is significant excitation of the molecular states by the secondary (delta-ray) electron population or by the weakly-ionized channel electrons. The cross sections for excitation generally have thresholds of about 5- 20 eV, have maxima near 70-90 eV, and fall off as £nE/E in the high energy limit.<sup>8</sup> Figure 1 presents the excitation cross section for the No first negative band. The delta-ray distribution, which extends outside of the beam radius, will provide a significant contribution to the excitation because of the large proportion of delta-rays with energies near the excitation cross-section maximum. This is evident from inspection of the delta-ray distribution presented in Figure 2. Furthermore, light emitted from a particular axial location is to some degree dependent on delta rays created at a different axial position. Thus, the spatial dependence of the emission intensity is highly dependent on the spatial distribution of delta-ray secondaries, which tends to mask the correlation with primary beam excitation. Finally, the weakly-ionized channel electrons can contribute strongly to the observed light; as a result of high E/p (electric-field to pressure ratio) distortion of the channel-plasma electron distribution, there may be a significant number of electrons with energies greater than the threshold or near the peak of the excitation

cross section. As seen in Figure 3, without the high E/p effects the overlap of the plasma electron distribution and the excitation cross-section is inconsequential for temperatures less than 1 eV. These secondary electrons can produce a light intensity competitive with that produced by primary beam excitation and correct interpretation of visible observations thus depends on an understanding of these effects.

Thus, the problems of interpreting measurements of visible light emission are somewhat analogous to the problems that arise in attempts to interpret measurements of currents using Rogowski belts or B-dot probes. These inductive current diagnostics are sensitive only to the net current (sum of primary beam and secondary return currents) and additional diagnostics must be employed to resolve each component. The light emission diagnostics are, in turn, also sensitive to a weighted net current (sum of primary beam and secondary currents weighted by effective excitation factors).

There are two steps in unfolding beam parameters from the observed emission. The first is to determine the position dependent excited state population density from the given visible intensity. The intensity of visible radiation emitted by an optically-thin line radiator with thickness z is

$$I = \frac{hv}{4\pi} A \int_{0}^{z} N_{ex} dZ , \qquad (1)$$

where h $\nu$  is the photon energy, A(s<sup>-1</sup>) is the spontaneous emission transition probability, and N<sub>ex</sub> (cm<sup>-3</sup>) is the position dependent excited state population density. The spatial variation of N<sub>ex</sub> can be obtained by tomographic inversion techniques (eg. Abel inversion for cylindrically symmetric systems such as beams). Photography can thus provide an accurate measurement of the time-integrated spatial distribution of excited states if an optical filter at wavelength  $\lambda$  = c/ $\nu$  is used. Time resolution can be obtained with a streak or framing camera. The remaining question is that of establishing beam parameters through a knowledge of N<sub>ex</sub>.

For the optically thin radiator, radiative excitation can be neglected, and the excitation to the upper state by collisions occurs at a rate given by  $\langle\sigma n_e v\rangle$ , where  $\sigma$  is the (velocity dependent) excitation cross section. The average is taken over the electron distribution in velocity space,  $n_e$ . The total density distribution is composed of  $n_b$  (primary-beam electrons),  $n_\delta$  (delta-ray secondary electrons) and  $n_p$  (ionized-channel plasma electrons); each has a very different velocity distribution. The upper state of the transition can be de-excited collisionally (in addition to radiating) and the rate for this process is  $q_0N_0$ , where  $N_0$  is the density of air molecules, and  $q_0$  is the quenching coefficient in air.

Including these processes and neglecting other means of populating the upper level (such as recombination) one gets the rate equation for the excited state population,

$$N_{ex} = \langle \sigma n_e v \rangle N_0 - AN_{ex} - qN_{ex} N_0 . \qquad (2)$$

Equation (2) can be rewritten as

$$N_{ex} + N_{ex}/\tau = \langle \sigma n v \rangle N_{o} , \qquad (3)$$

which has the solution

$$N_{ex} = \exp[-t/\tau] \int_{0}^{t} \exp[t'/\tau] \langle \sigma n_{e} v \rangle N_{o} dt' + C \exp[-t/\tau], \qquad (4)$$

The time constant,  $\tau$ , in equations (3) and (4) is

$$\tau = [A + qN_o]^{-1} \tag{5}$$

Several features of Equations (2)-(5) that relate to the applicability of optical emission diagnostics are worth pointing out. The lower pressure

for practical use of this radiation diagnostic is the pressure at which quenching first dominates  $\tau$ . For pressure greater than this minimum and time variations of the electron density much larger than  $\tau$ , the density of excited states is independent of air pressure and is given by

$$N_{ex}^{\sim} < \sigma n_{e} v > /q$$
 (6)

As an example, we will use the first negative emission of N<sub>2</sub>(3914 Å); for this transition the spontaneous emission coefficient is A = 1.24 x  $10^7$  s<sup>-1</sup> and the quenching coefficient in air is q = 5.1 x  $10^{-10}$  cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup> (Ref. 10). Therefore, quenching dominates  $\tau$  for air densities N<sub>0</sub> > A/q = 2.4 x  $10^{16}$  cm<sup>-3</sup> (p<sub>0</sub> > .74 Torr at 20°C). For full atmospheric pressure,  $\tau$  = 78 ps, which is much faster than the time variations in present experiments. For comparison the second positive emission of N<sub>2</sub>(3371 Å) (A =  $1.1 \times 10^7$  s<sup>-1</sup> and q =  $6.6 \times 10^{-11}$  cm<sup>3</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>)<sup>11</sup> has a minimum useful pressure of ~5.1 Torr ( $\tau$  ~ .60 ns for 3371 Å emission in full density air).

Equation (5) can be solved for  $N_0$ , the minimum neutral number density required to assure a required response time  $t_r$ .

$$N_0 = \frac{1}{qt_r} - \frac{A}{q}$$

For  $N_2^+(1-)$  and  $N_2(2^+)$  this becomes, respectively,

$$p = \frac{59.4}{t_r(ns)} - .74$$
 Torr (7a)

$$p = \frac{459}{t_r(ns)} - 5.05$$
 Torr (7b)

Equations (7) are plotted in Figure 4. This figure is useful for the determination of the minimum pressure for which the emission intensity can be expected to faithfully follow an experimental density variation.

Furthermore, this figure indicates the expected delay time between the onset of a rapid electron density increase at low pressures (where the density rise time is much less than  $t_r$  given by Eq. (7)) and the appearance of the optical emission. For example, at pressures less than 1 Torr, the emission from density increases occurring in less than - 10 ns would have a rise time of ~ 20 - 30 ns. This lack of temporal fidelity is a further limitation on the pressure range for use of emission diagnostics.

To summarize, to be assured that the emission intensity faithfully reproduces the electron density variation, one is restricted to pressures greater than given in Fig. 4 for any expected time variation of the electron density, and to insure independence of the emission from the neutral gas density the pressure must be greater than 0.7% Torr (for 3914 A light) or 5.1 Torr (for 3371 A).

Assuming that the density variations in the experiment satisfy the foregoing restrictions, then the observed emission intensity will be proportional to  $\langle\sigma n_e v\rangle$  (Equation (1) and Equation (6)). However,  $n_e$  is composed of  $n_b$ ,  $n_\delta$  and  $n_p$ ; the beam, secondary and plasma electron distributions; each with its own widely differing energy distribution. The observed fluorescence is a combination (both temporaly and spatially) of these, and any information about  $n_b$  (or  $j_b = \langle n_b v \rangle$ ) must be further unfolded.

To unfold the observed fluorescence first consider the plasma electrons. At the higher pressures a significant fraction of the plasma electrons result from direct ionization and, therefore, have a density proportional to the beam density. These electrons cannot distort the optical measurements unless there exists a mechanism for locally distorting the light intensity resulting from their excitation of the molecular levels. Such a mechanism is found in high E/p effects. For high electric field-

to-pressure ratios (E/p) a large number of particles go into the high energy tail of the distribution raising the effective temperature of the electrons. Por E/p = 10 V cm<sup>-1</sup> Torr<sup>-1</sup> in air, Teff/Tgas ~ 50 (Ref. 13). Because of high effective temperature electrons with more than the threshold for excitation (~11eV for N<sub>2</sub>(2<sup>+</sup>)) will be present. The large number of plasma electrons relative to the beam electrons (~10<sup>3</sup>) could contribute greatly to the observed emission. Because of the time dependent fields and skewed distribution, a simple but accurate estimate of these effects cannot be made here.

However, a rough estimate of  $< n_\sigma v>$  can be made for both the plasma and the beam. The ratio of these gives the relative amount of excitation due to both sources. The average for the plasma electrons can be done by using a Maxwellian distribution and a linear fit for the excitation cross section near its threshold, if the Maxwellian temperature is much less than the threshold energy. Then,

$$\sigma = aE + b \qquad E > E_0$$

$$= 0 \qquad E \le E_0 \qquad . \tag{8}$$

For  $N_2^+(1-)$ ,  $E_0 \sim 18.8$  eV and a =  $10^{-18}$  cm<sup>2</sup> eV<sup>-1</sup> and b =  $1.88\times10^{-17}$  cm<sup>2</sup>. The average for beam electrons was calculated from a monoenergetic distribution. The result is

$$\frac{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{p}}{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{b}} - \left(\frac{n_{p}}{n_{b}}\right) \left(\frac{8kT}{\pi mc^{2}}\right)^{1/2} \frac{a(E_{o} + 2kT)}{\sigma(E_{b})} e^{-E_{o}/kT} , \qquad (9)$$

where the subscripts p or b refer to plasma or beam electrons, n is the particle density, kT the plasma temperature,  $E_b$  the beam electron energy,  $mc^2$  the electron rest mass,  $\sigma(E_b)$  the excitation cross section at the beam energy,  $E_0$  the threshold energy for excitation, and b is the slope of the cross section at threshold. For the  $N_2^+(1-)$  band, assuming that  $n_D/n_b = 10^3$  and 1.5 MeV beam electrons,

$$\frac{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{p}}{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{b}} \sim 37.2(kT)^{1/2} (18.8 + 2kT) e^{-18.8/kT}$$
 (10)

For 20 MeV beams

$$\frac{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{p}}{\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{b}} \sim 27.9(kT)^{1/2} (18.8 + 2kT) e^{-18.8/kT}$$
 (11)

The 1.5 MeV result is plotted on Figure 5. For plasma temperatures greater than 2.6 eV, the excitation from plasma electrons is greater than from beam electrons. The curve is very steep between 1 and 3 eV and probably quite sensitive to the model. The curve is, therefore, intended only as a rough guideline and an indication of the magnitude of possible plasma electron effects. What is clearly evident is that the light resulting from the plasma electron distribution can equal that resulting from beam primaries if the effective plasma temperature is only slightly increased by high E/p effects. That is, the emission resulting from plasma electrons is greatly and non-linearly enhanced in regions of high E/p. A 20 MeV curve could be similar to the 1.5 MeV curve only scaled in magnitude by .75. On the scale of Figure 5 the two would be almost indistinguishable.

Next we examine the delta-ray (knock-on) secondary electrons. Bombarding N<sub>2</sub> with 1.5 MeV electrons and monitoring the N<sup>+</sup><sub>2</sub>(1-) emissions, Hirsch, et al., found that roughly 1/3 of the emission was due to primaries and 2/3 due to secondaries. A theoretical estimate of  $\langle n\sigma v \rangle_{\delta} / \langle n\sigma v \rangle_{b}$  can be made to compare to the experimental results. Again  $\langle n\sigma v \rangle_{b}$  is calculated by characterizing the distribution as monoenergetic and using the cross section evaluated at the beam energy. The number of particles, n, is left unspecified,

$$\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{b} \sim 1.8 \times 10^{-19} n_{b}$$
 (12)

For every  $n_b$  that forms  $N_2^+$ , there are  $n_b$  delta electrons formed and a total of secondaries, tertiaries, etc. of ~ 3  $n_b$ . By integrating over the electron distribution and cross section

$$\langle n_{\sigma} v \rangle_{\delta} = 3.9 \times 10^{-19} n_{b}$$
 (13)

This gives 32% of the emission due to primaries and 68% due to secondaries, in very close agreement with experimental results. At 20 MeV these fractions are 38% and 62%, respectively.

Considering the case of a 20 MeV beam of .1 cm radius in full density air, neglecting the fields gives half the energy of the secondaries deposited within a radius of .1 cm (in the beam) and half outside of the beam. Considering only primaries and secondaries, 1/3 of the  $N_2^{\frac{1}{2}}(1^-)$  emission is due to primaries, 1/3 due to secondaries in the beam and 1/3 due to secondaries outside the beam. The effect of the delta-ray secondaries is, therefore, to blur the radial spatial resolution. The time history of the total light from a region of limited axial extent will, however, not be significantly different than the time history of the beam current as a result of delta ray effects because of the proportionality of

 $n_b$  and  $n_b$ . Thus, an optical Faraday cup based on this principle should not be affected by delta-ray electrons. Indeed, the additional signal resulting from delta ray secondaries helps to enhance the wanted signal (proportional to  $n_b$ ) compared with the "noise" (proportional to  $n_p$ , for example).

In summary, there are large contributions to the observed emission from both delta rays and the plasma electrons. The contribution from the plasma is very sensitive to the temperature and high energy tail of the distribution and the delta ray contribution differs spatially from the beam contribution. Although much information must be decoupled to obtain beam parameters from optical emissions, the emissions do appear to be good monitors of total energy deposition. In regions not dominated by high E/p effects, the total (radially integrated) light from a region of limited axial extent can probably be used as an "optical Faraday cup" to measure  $I_b(t)$  because of the proportionality of the descendent electron density to  $n_b$ . The temporal response of such a diagnostic can be expected to follow  $I_b$  only at pressures higher than a minimum determined by the most rapid fluctuations of  $I_b$ .

### III. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To this point the discussion has centered on the interpretation of observed emissions, primarily  $N_2(2^+)$  and  $N_2^+(1^-)$ . Also important, and of future diagnostic use, is the understanding of the gross features of open shutter and high-speed photographs. In this section we will attempt to understand some of these features by examining optical measurements made during the course of propagation experiments using the AFWL FX-100 accelerator. The parameters of these experiments appear in Table 1.

Two striking features on some open-shutter photographs are color changes (red and/or green-blue) and feathering (see Figure 6 for this effect). Time integrated spectra were obtained to identify the source of this emission. Streak and framing photographs give both a temporal history of the emissions and an indication of feathering.

Spectral measurements were taken at 0.35 Torr (near the 0.5 Torr air pressure for maximum energy transport; i.e., "middle" of the propagation window). Because of time constraints spectra at other pressures could not be taken. The spectra were taken after propagating 4.5 m. They were integrated over 10 shots. The dispersing instrument used for these data was a Jarell-Ash 1/2-meter Fastie-Ebert spectrometer with a 1200 groove/mm (5500 A blaze wavelength) grating. The recording medium was Polaroid type 47 film.

Figures 7-11 display densitometer scans of the photographs of the spectral lines, and Table 2 lists the identified lines and bands and their designations. There are three major wavelength regions where emission are observed: 3750-4450A, 4600-4710A, and 6157A. Lower wavelengths were not recorded because the acrylic windows used have a sharp cutoff at

~ 3500A. The lowest wavelength region is the characteristic purple-blue emissions and is dominated by  $N_2$  and  $N_2^+$ . The band emission intensity in these regions was probably sufficient to saturate the film response. The wavelength region 4600-4710A is dominated by singly ionized atomic nitrogen (N<sup>+</sup>). Emission in the red wavelength range is dominated by a line at 6157A.

The red (6157 A) emission appears only in a narrow range of pressures. In the FX-100 experiments the red emission is observed between  $\sim 0.1 + 0.8$  Torr, and is not observed at any pressure in pure N<sub>2</sub> experiments. At higher and lower air pressures the emission is the characteristic purple-blue from N<sub>2</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>.

The 6157A emission line is from atomic oxygen, and was the only neutral atomic emission observed. The oxygen transition is  $4d^5D-3p^5P$  while the ground state is  $2p^3P$ . Although forbidden transitions such as  $^3P+^5D$  frequently occur through scattering, it seems unlikely that for the most intense oxygen transition the upper state would be populated in this manner. Probably, the beam produces  $0^+$ , which recombines with electrons to form oxygen in the  $^5D$  state. This interpretation is also consistent with no emission being observed at higher pressures.  $0^+$  would be lost through charge exchange to  $0_2$  which is excergic, so there would be no recombination to form  $0(^5D)$ . Similarly, at very low pressures, recombination would not be as likely because of the reduced collision frequency. Figure 12 is a more detailed densitometer scan for this oxygen line, actually 3 lines at 6156.0, 6156.8 and 6158.2A corresponding to J=1, 2 and 3.

Figure 13 shows two densitometer scans over the same portion of the spectra. The bottom one was taken along the axis of the beam as were all the earlier scans. The upper scan corresponds to a radial position 0.63 cm off axis. At this radial position the atomic nitrogen (N<sup>+</sup>) lines were no longer apparent. This was a general characteristic of the

spectra. The spatial extent of the atomic lines was much smaller than for the molecular lines. The molecular emission had a radius of  $\sim 30$  mm, the atomic emission  $\sim 2.4$  mm, and the radius of the beam was  $\sim 30$  mm. This is indicative of a very high electron-distribution average energy near the axis, because the electron energy needed to dissociate and ionize the N<sub>2</sub> molecules is  $\sim 24.3$  eV.

An Imacon 790 image-converter camera was used to obtain streak and framing pictures of the emission. These observations were made through the same window used for the spectrometer but were not simultaneous with spectral measurements. The image-converter camera had a rather long delay after triggering, and in order to record the head of the beam it was necessary to delay the emission light by folding the optical path through 2.2 m and locating the camera next to the FX-100 output switch. The camera trigger was derived directly from the light emitted by the FX-100 output switch. This physical arrangement provided the required delay of the beam emission signal through the beam vacuum-diode delay, beam-propagation delay, and optical-path delay. A 1200-mm Questar collection lens used at the camera provided adequate magnification and light intensity without the use of intermediate field or relay lenses.

Figure 14 is a streak photograph taken at 0.35 Torr. The abrupt decrease in the diameter of the emission is at ~ 120 ns, the length of the beam pulse. It is clear from this photograph that the intense emission near the axis persists in stationary patterns for long times after the beam has passed through the region. The radial contraction is probably due to the collapse of the magnetic field set up by the beam. Because the spectra had shown the spatial depedence of the atomic and molecular emissions to be different, streak photographs were made with wavelength filters with passbands at typical molecular and atomic emission wavelengths. One filter had a passband centered at the N<sup>+</sup> band at 4278A and these photographs showed that the molecular emission turned off at 120 ns (at the same time that the beam turned off). This light was observed to originate over the larger

radial extent previously observed in the time-integrated spectral measurements. The other filter allowed for the transmission of the atomic nitrogen lines between 4607A and 4643A. In agreement with the spectra, the atomic emissions were of limited radial extent. Unfortunately, the intensity of the atomic emissions was low and the starting time for these could not be accurately determined. They appear to start ~ 100 ns after the beam head and continue for more than 800 ns after the beam passage.

Although plasma currents continue to flow in the gas long after the beam passage, the L/R decay of these currents is too rapid (100 - 200 ns) to explain the observed afterglow emission from excited atomic states, which persists for more than 800 ns. Another possible mechanism for the continued excitation of these states is the collisional transfer of energy initially stored as molecular vibrational energy ( $T_V$ ) by beam or delta-ray electron excitation. However, the most likely explanation for the persistance of atomic states such as N<sup>+</sup> after their initial formation is simply the extremely slow deionization rate at the low air pressures of these experiments. To show this, the deionization times for the various collisional reactions  $^{14}$  as well as radiative recombination  $^{15}$  are graphed for a wide range of dry air pressures in Fig. 17. Also given is the scaling of this time with neutral gas and electron density and temperature.

For calculation of the N<sup>+</sup> deionization times that are graphed in Figure 17 the gas temperatures  $(T_g)$ , electron temperature  $(T_e)$  and electron density,  $n_e$ , were chosen to give the fastest rates for realistic values of these parameters. That is, it is unreasonable to assume that the N<sup>+</sup> concentrate could be depleted more rapidly than indicated by the graph. It is clear from this figure that the observed afterglow from N<sup>+</sup> states for > 500 ns in 0.35 Torr air is not surprising. Note that, although deionization of high pressure and weakly ionized air is controlled by neutral association, deionization at pressures higher than ~ 2 Torr

can be dominated by three-body recombination if the fractional ionization ( $f = n_e/n_a$ ) is great enough. However, at the pressures relevant to the FX-100 experiments reported here the rate determining reactions for N<sup>+</sup> deionization are N<sup>+</sup> + O<sub>2</sub> reactions. All deionization times increase with temperature and even with an air temperature as cold as 1/40 eV, deionization by these reactions in 0.35 Torr air is slow enough that N<sup>+</sup> ions would persist in the afterglow for several hundred ns, in agreement with the observations.

Framing photographs are shown in Figures 15 and 16. Each frame is integrated over 10 ns and the interval between frames is 40 ns. The sequence in which the frames were taken alternates between the lower and upper rows, left to right (in the N shaped sequence characteristic of the Imacon camera). These photographs clearly show the formation of the feather patterns seen earlier in the open shutter photographs (Fig. 6). The feathering appears to occur at the end of the beam (Frames 3 and 4), possibly as the fields (and thus E/p) are rapidly changing. However, the feathering may be present at all times and masked by other intense emissions. As the region of emission collapses at the end of the beam, the vertices of the feathers remain in the same location and continue to radiate for long times (the last frame is ~ 600 ns in Fig. 16, and ~ 700 ns in Fig. 17). The integration of the radiation from these vertices is responsible for the intense exposure previously seen near the axis of the open shutter pictures. Thus, the "hot spots" previously seen in open shutter photographs do not result from extremely intense emission for a short duration, but rather are the result of long time exposure compared with the remainder of the emission.

In summary, from the spectral measurements we have identified the observed red emission to be atomic oxygen at 6157A, we have identified a large number of  $N_2$ ,  $N_2^+$  and  $N_2^+$  emissions, and we have shown the

atomic line radiation to emanate from a region of limited radial extent. In the streak photographs we have seen some results of the magnetic field collapse at the end of the beam. We have observed that the molecular emissions temporally track the beam and that the atomic emission persists at late times, after the beam has passed. The framing photos give the first hint of the feathering process, show the collapse of the field and radiating volume, and the long time history of the atomic emissions. Further development of these techniques (i.e., time-resolved spectroscopy) holds great promise for providing much information on beam-air chemistry (and hence conductivity) and on basic beam parameters.

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### TABLE 1. FX-100 BEAM PROPAGATION EXPERIMENT PARAMETERS

Maximum Beam Energy,  $E_b = 1.5 - 2.0 \text{ MeV}$ 

Maximum Beam Current,  $I_h = 35 - 40 \text{ kA}$ 

Beam Pulse Duration,  $\Delta t = 120 \text{ ns}$ 

Beam 1/e-radius at injection,  $r_{bo} = 3$  cm

Propagation Chamber Radius,  $R_{\omega} = 10$  cm

Observation Port Position,  $z_0 = 4.5 \text{ m}$ 

Air Pressure,  $p_0 = 0.1 - 20 \text{ Torr}$ 

TABLE 2. IDENTIFICATION OF OBSERVED LINES AND BANDS.

WAVELENGTH A	ATOM/MOLECULE	TRANSITION (v', v")
3755	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (1,3)
3805	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (0,2)
<b>38</b> 58	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (4,7)
3884	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(1,1)$
3914	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) (0,0)
3943	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (2,5)
3998	N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> +	(2+) (1,4)
4059	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (0,3)
4095	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (4,8)
4142	$N_2$	(2+) (3,7)
4167	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(3,4)$
4200	N <sub>2</sub> N <sub>2</sub> +	(2+) (2,6)
4236	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(1,2)$
4270	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (1,5)
4278	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(0,1)$
4344	N <sub>2</sub>	(2+) (0,4)
4417	N <sub>2</sub> N+	(2+) (3,8)
4433		3d 3p0-4f D(5/2)
4447	N+	3p 3D - 3d 3D0
4490	N <sub>2</sub> N+	(2+) (2,7)
4530		$3d^{-1}F - 4f^{-}G(9/2)$
4554	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(3,5)$
4574	N <sub>2</sub>	$\begin{pmatrix} (2+) & (1,6) \\ (2+) & (1,6) \end{pmatrix}$
4600	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(2,4)$ $3s$ $3po$ $3p$ $3p$ $3p$
4607	N+ N+	3s 3p0 - 3p3p 3s 3p0 - 3p3p
4614 4621	N+	3s 3p0 - 3p3p
4630	N+	3s 3po _ 3p3p
4643	N+	3s 3po _ 3p3p
4652	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) (1,3)
4678	N+	$3d^{1}PO - 4f D(3/2)$
4709	N <sub>2</sub> +	(1-) $(0.2)$
4803	N+	30 30 - 34300
4860	N+	3p 3D - 3d3D0 3p 3D - 3d3D0 3p 3D - 3d3F0
5001	N+	30 30 243E0
5005	N+	3s 5p - 3p5p0
	ì	3s 5p - 3p5p0 3p 3p - 3d3p0 3s 3p - 3p3p
5667	N+	3s <sup>3p</sup> - 3p <sup>3</sup> D
5680	N+	i 3s 3p - 3p3p
5686	N+	3s 3p - 3p3p
5711	N+	$3s   ^{3p} - 3p^{3}D$ $3s   ^{3p} - 3p^{3}D$
6157	Ö	3p 5p - 4d5D0
	<u> </u>	- TO 0

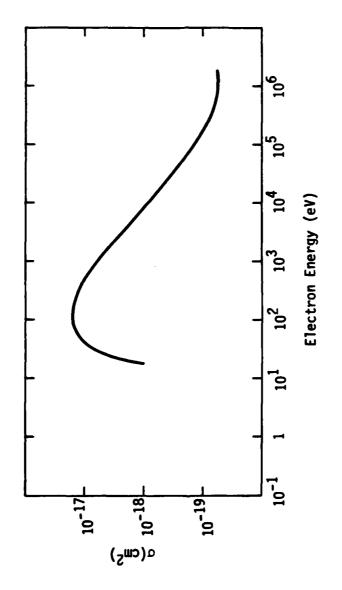


Figure 1. Excitation cross section for  $N_2^+(1^-)$ . (Data from Ref. 8)

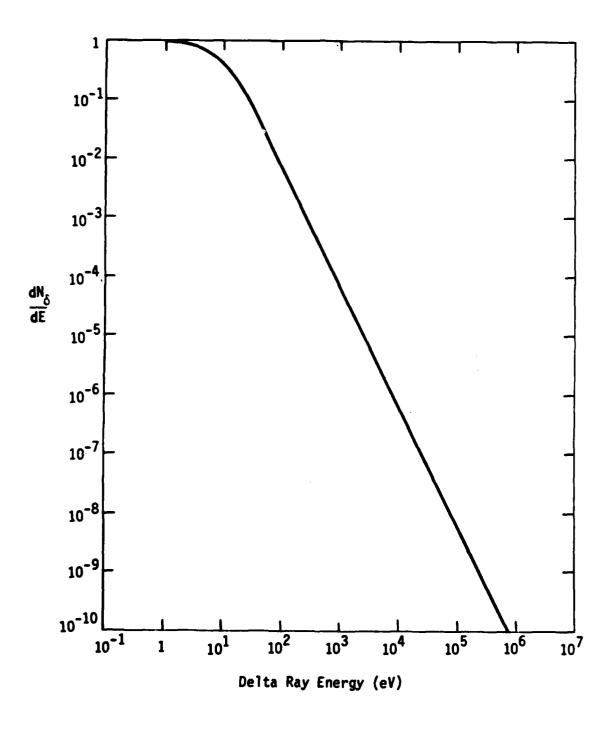


Figure 2. Distribution of delta rays with energy. (Calculated for  $\gamma \gtrsim 4)$ 

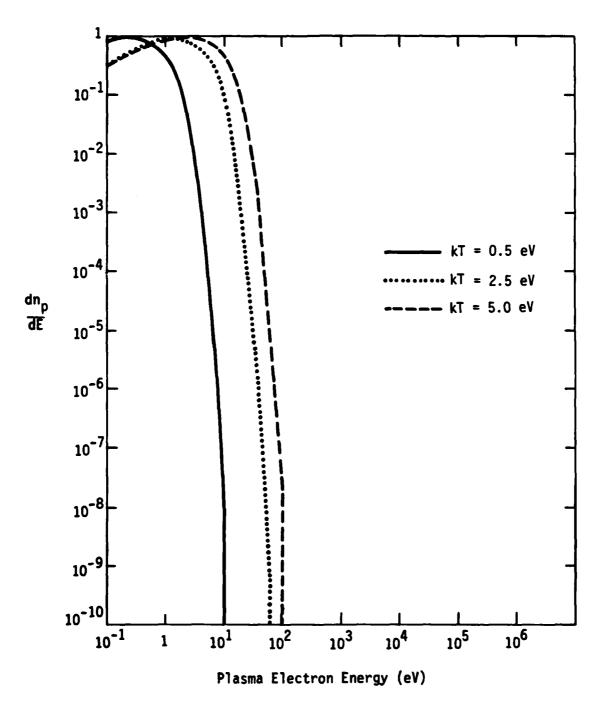


Figure 3. Distribution of plasma electrons with energy for three Maxwellian temperature distributions.

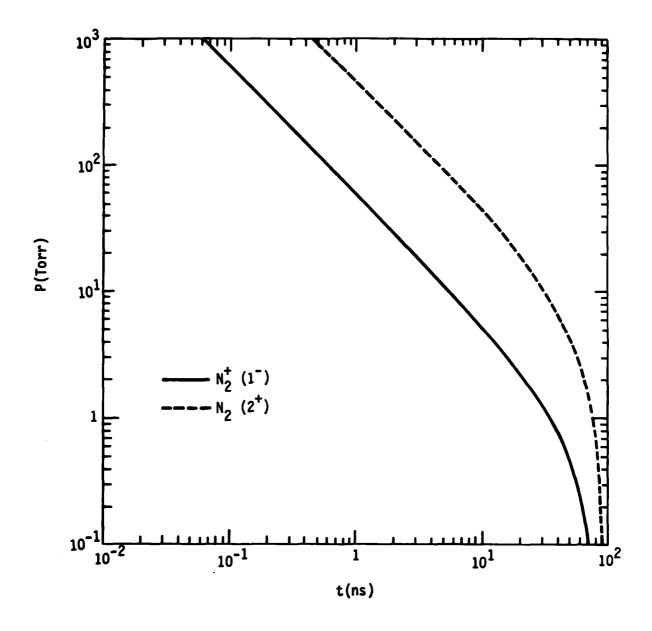
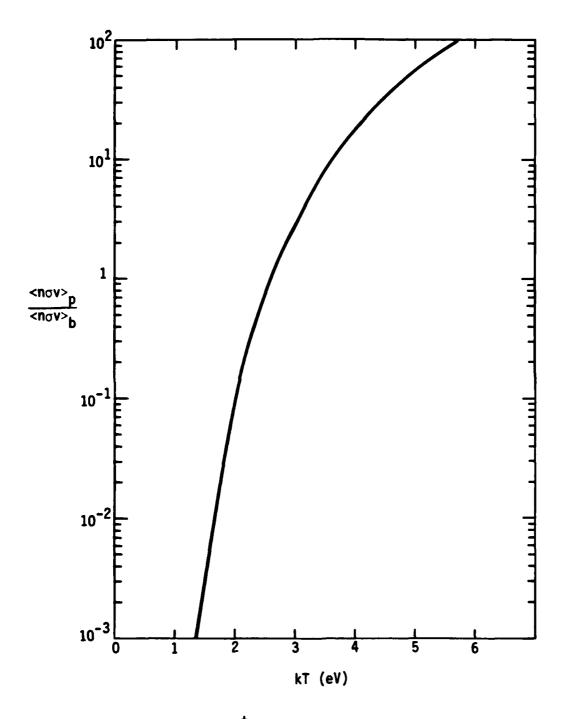


Figure 4. Pressure required for a given response time for two nitrogen bands.



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Figure 5. Ratio of  $N_2^+(1^-)$  excitation caused by plasma electrons to beam electrons as a function of plasma temperature, assuming  $n_p/n_b=103$  and  $E_b=1.5$  MeV.

Figure 6. Open shutter photograph of FX-100 beam showing feathering.

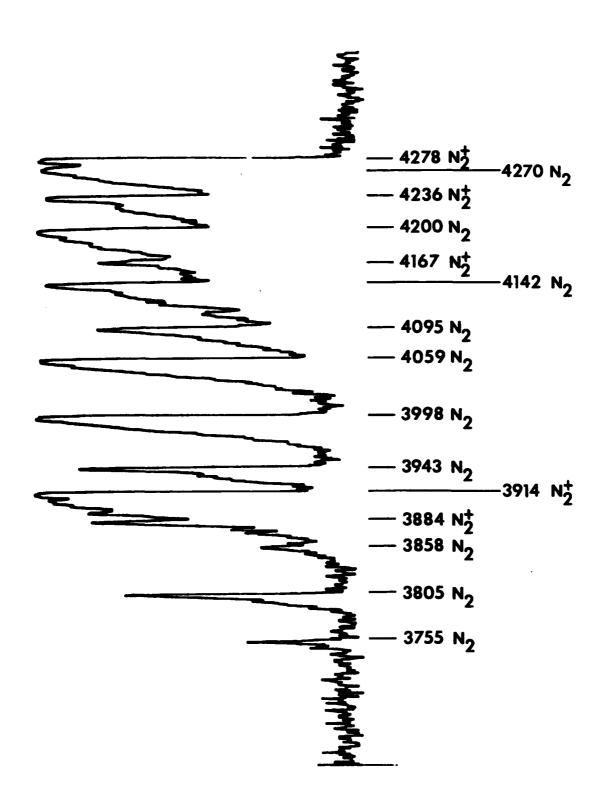


Figure 7. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra.

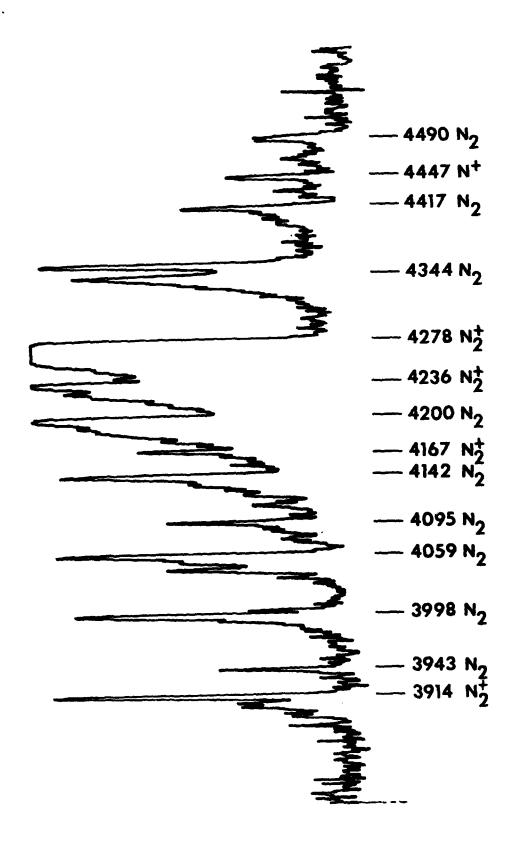


Figure 8. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra.

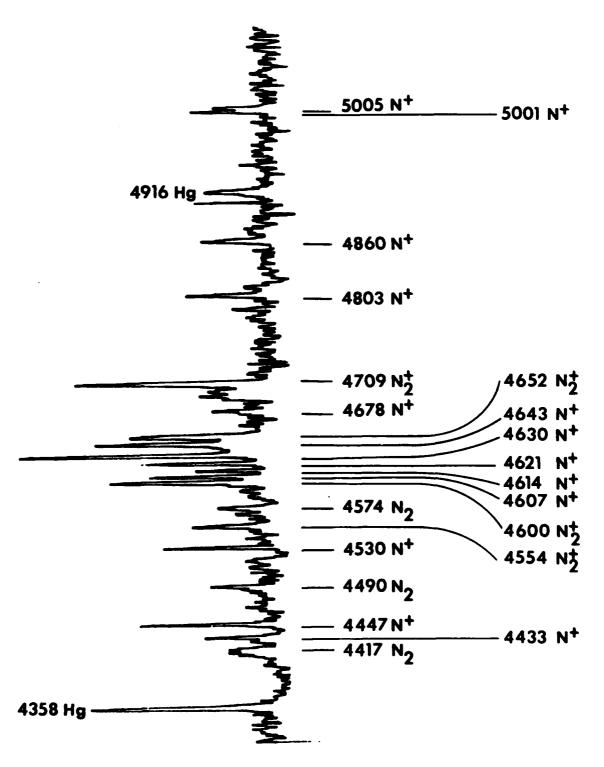


Figure 9. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra.

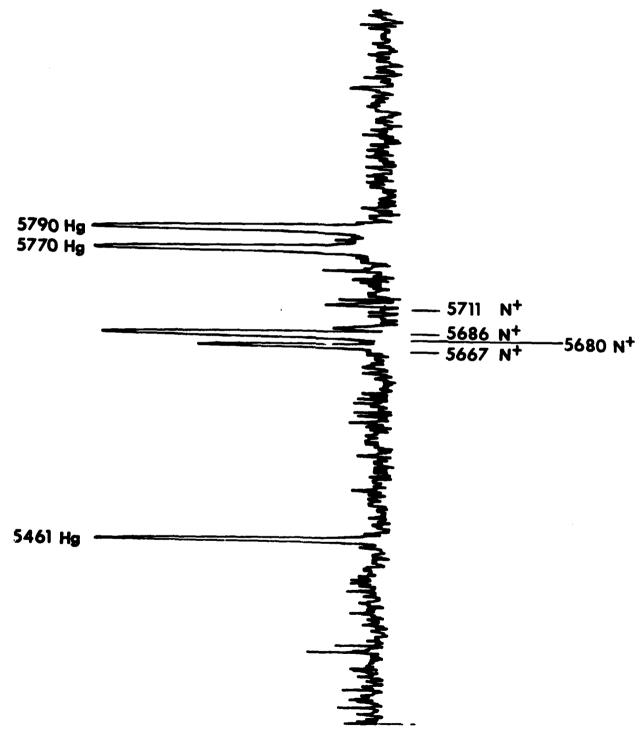


Figure 10. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra.

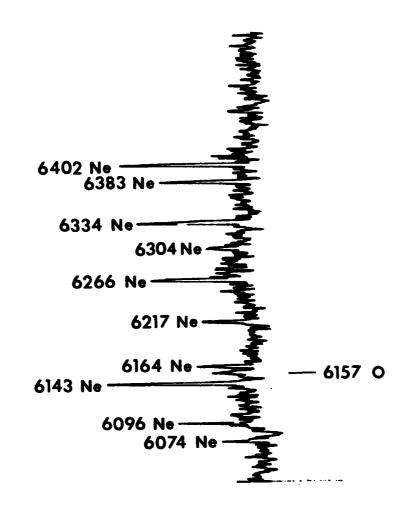


Figure 11. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra.

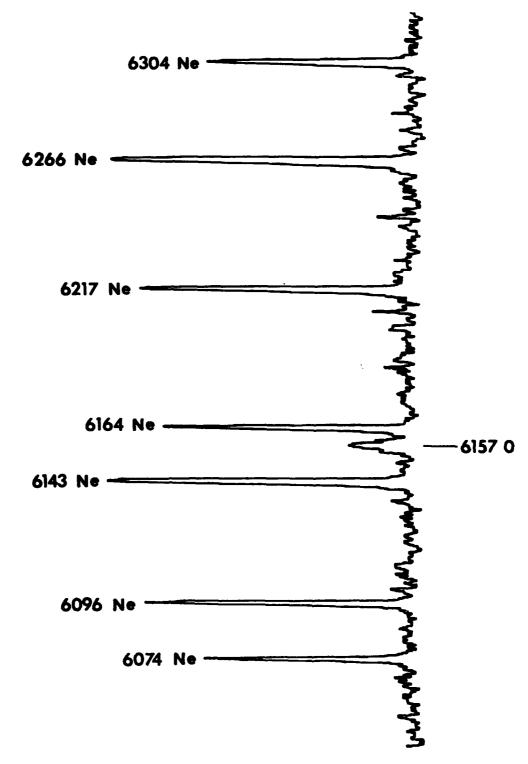


Figure 12. Detailed densitometer scan of oxygen line.

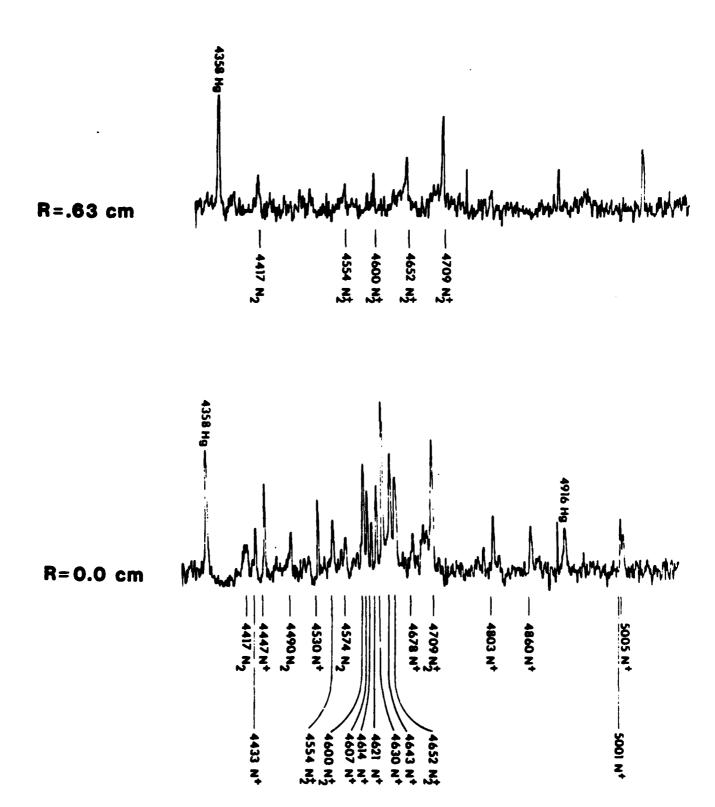


Figure 13. Densitometer scan of FX-100 spectra off axis and on axis.

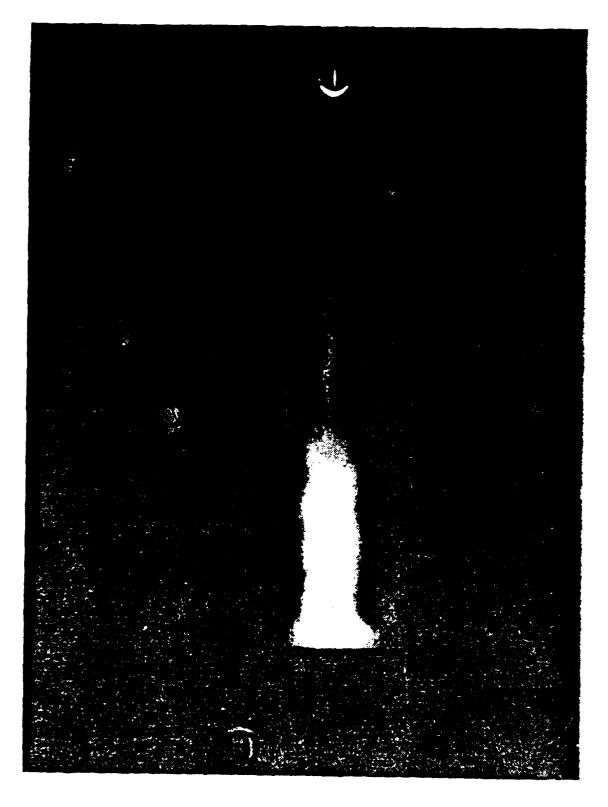


Figure 14. Streak photograph of beam at .35 Torr.

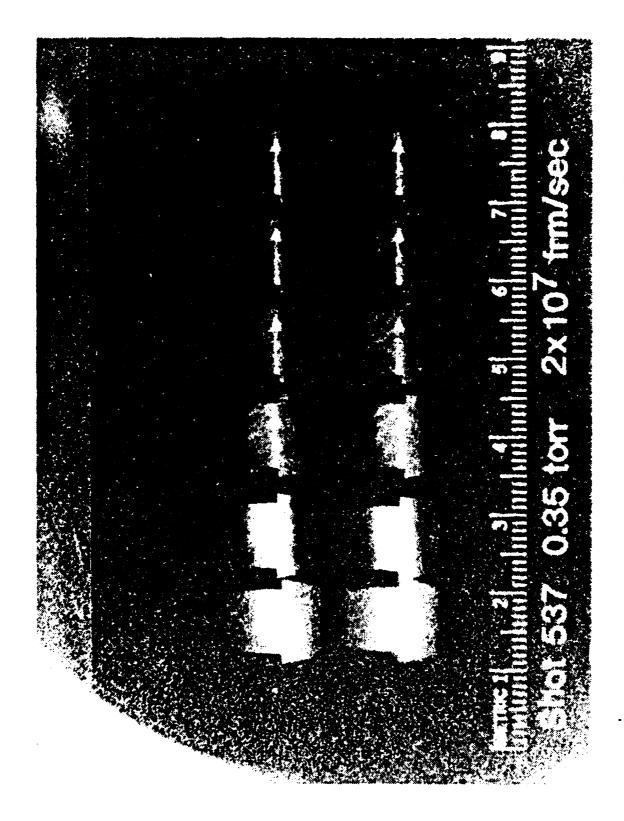


Figure 15. Framing photograph of FX-100 beam at .35 Torr.

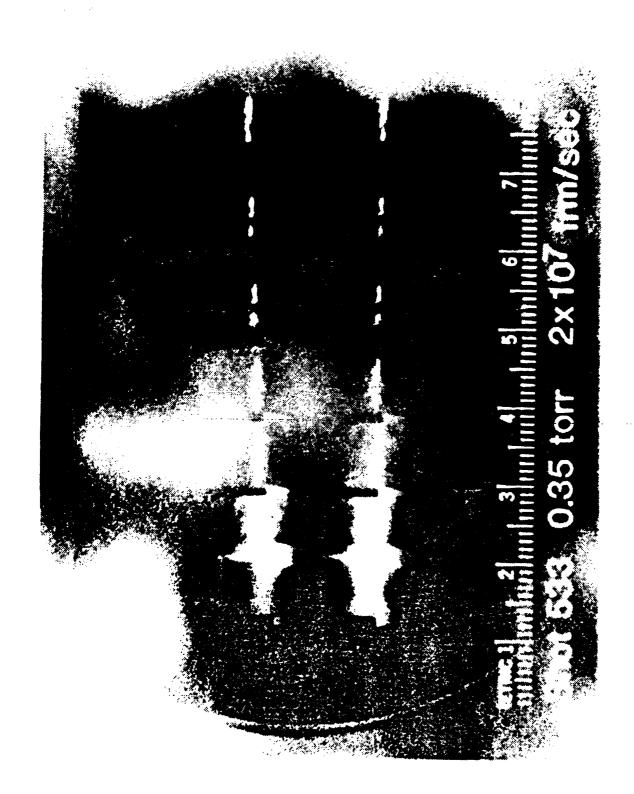


Figure 16. Framing photograph of FX-100 beam at .35 Torr.

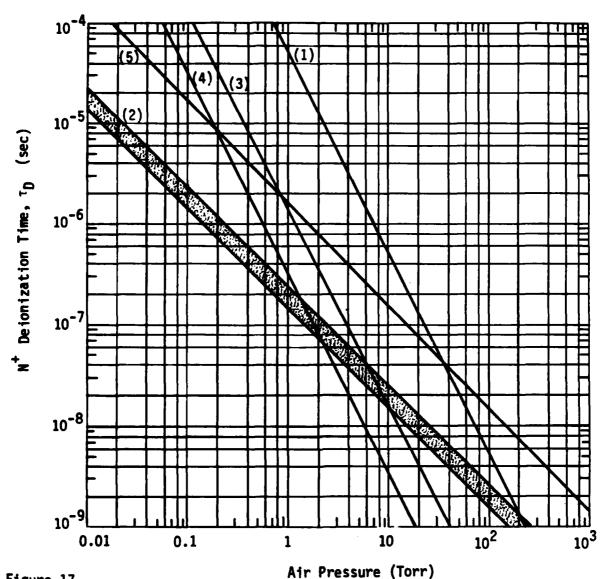


Figure 17.

Persistance of N<sup>+</sup> ions in air resulting from the following deionization reactions:

(1) 
$$N^{+} + 2N_{2} \rightarrow N_{3}^{+} + N_{2}$$
  $(T_{g} = 0.025 \text{ eV}; \tau_{D} \propto n_{a}^{-2}T_{g})$   
(2)  $N^{+} + 0_{2} \rightarrow N_{0}^{+} + 0$   $(0.025 \text{ eV} < T_{g} < 1.0 \text{ eV}; \tau_{D} \propto n_{a}^{-1}T_{g}^{0.57})$   
(3)  $e + M + N^{+} \rightarrow M + N$   $(T_{e} = 0.025; n_{e} = 0.1 n_{a}; \tau_{D} \propto n_{e}^{-1}n_{a}^{-1}T_{e}^{2.5})$   
(4)  $e + e + N^{+} \rightarrow e + N$   $(T_{e} = 0.025; n_{e} = 0.1 n_{a}; \tau_{D} \propto n_{e}^{-2}T_{e}^{4.5})$   
(5)  $e + N^{+} \rightarrow N + h\nu$   $(T_{e} = 0.025; n_{e} = 0.1 n_{a}; \tau_{D} \propto n_{e}^{-1}T_{e}^{0.5})$ 

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### APPENDIX C

#### APPENDIX C

#### CHANNEL TEMPERATURE DETERMINATION

The singly ionized atomic nitrogen and neutral atomic oxygen emissions observed in some low pressure electron beam propagation studies (FX-100, VISHNU) are related to the beam channel temperature after the beam has passed. The goal of this study was to gain a better understanding of the neutral oxygen emission at 615.7 nm and the feathered structure associated with it (Fig. 1). Out of this came the identification of reliable nitrogen ionic lines for time resolved channel temperature determination. Because the available spectra were time integrated, an accurate determination of the temperature using line ratios was not possible, although rough ( $\pm$  15%) averages were made.

To review earlier optical emission work,  $^1$  experimental data from the FX-100 electron beam (1.5 MeV, 40 kA, 120 ns, .35 Torr) show:

- 1)  $N^+$  and 0 emissions have a much smaller radius than either the beam or the  $N_2$  and  $N_2^+$  emissions,
- 2)  $N_2$  and  $N_2$ <sup>+</sup> emission are quenched at roughly the end of the beam pulse.
- 3) N<sup>+</sup> and 0 emissions start at roughly the end of the beam and are long lived, i.e., longer than the .6 microseconds recorded by the framing camera,
- 4) O emissions occurred at pressures between .1 and .8 Torr (roughly the propagation window).

The electron beam spectra are very similar to spectra of lightning channels  $(20,000 - 25,000^{\circ}K)$  and of laser produced channels  $(20,000 - 28,000^{\circ}K)$ . Table 1 lists the lines spectroscopically observed and used in

# N<sup>+</sup> LINES

REMARKS	Prueitt, obscured	Prueitt, obscured	Vignetted	Vignetted					Low Intensity	Forbidden Transition	(Mixture of 3 Multiplets	$3_{D-3F}$ , $5_{P-5P}$ , $3_{P-3S}$		Prueitt
gf	1,89	17,43	8,19	1,93	4,69	3.03	1,34	2,70	92'	1	I	I	4.07	1,90
EXCITATION ENERGY (cm <sup>-1</sup> )	174213	211332	211428	187092	211403	170637	170667	211491	187493		1	1	166616	166679
λ(Å)	3995	4041	4433	<b>2</b> 4447	4530	4623.2	(4630)	8/9#	4803	4860	5001	5005	5679.4	(2680)

forming line ratios plus the lines at 399.5 nm and 404.1 nm recommended by Prueitt<sup>2</sup> in lightning studies. These two were obscured by  $N_2$  bands in the time integrated spectra. Some lines were not used for temperature determination because of vignetting, low intensity or overlapping multiplets with different parent states. All the others are good for temperature measurements, having both high intensity and spanning a broad range of excitation energies. Those parenthetical wavelength entries refer to the brightest line from the multiplet average listed just above.

From the available lines and multiplets at 4530, 4632.2 4678 and 5679.4 A four intensity ratios were formed: I(4530)/I(4623.2), I(4530)/I(5679.4), I(4678)/I(4623.2) and I(4678)/I(5679.4). These line ratios take advantage of the large difference in excitation energies of the upper states. Because the spectra are time integrated accurate temperature measurements cannot be made. Even average temperatures can be misleading. As the channel cools, the lines originating from the highest lying states stop radiating, but the lines from the lower lying states continue to radiate. The effect is to integrate the light from lower states longer than the higher states, augmenting the intensity of lower states. Line ratios of these will then give an apparent temperature lower than the average temperature of the channel while the higher state was radiating. Nevertheless, an average temperature from these four line ratios was 22,400°K  $\pm$  15%. This agrees well with a temperature estimate of ~2 eV made from ohmic heating of the channel.

At this time two points should be made. First, the time integrated temperature determined above contains only limited information. Time dependent spectra are really needed to determine the channel temperature properly, and in this respect, the time integrated spectra were useful in identifying suitable N<sup>+</sup> lines. Secondly, even though these spectra were time integrated no N lines were detected. As the temperature drops, N<sup>+</sup>

lines stop and N lines start radiating. However, their intensity is low and they are undetected relative to the  $N^+$  lines. This is unfortunate since at full atmospheric pressure much lower channel temperatures are expected, temperatures too low to excite the more readily seen  $N^+$  lines.

At roughly T = 2 eV, the state responsible for the neutral oxygen emission is not in equilibrium with the observed N<sup>+</sup> states. This can be seen from the following.  $0_2$  has a lower dissociation energy than  $N_2$  and  $0_3$  a lower ionization energy than N. Hence, if in equilibrium, oxygen should be in a higher, not lower ionization state. Thus, the 615.7 nm radiation probably arises from recombination of  $0^+$  + e, with the  $0^+$  in equilibrium, although no  $0^+$  emissions exist to verify this. Alternatively, the 0 emission could be from later times and lower temperatures than the N<sup>+</sup> emissions.

The interpretation of the physical processes involved is that after the beam passes, the fields collapse and heat the plasma. This turns on the N $^+$  and O emissions which continue until the temperature is sufficiently low. The energy deposited in the plasma is in part determined by the gas pressure. At pressures above the propagation window, the density is up so the energy per particle is down. At pressures below the propagation window, poor propagation (smaller fields and larger channels) also makes the energy per particle low. This interpretation explains the observations made earlier, and why the FX-100 experiments, which have a propagation window at a comparatively low pressure, consistently observed the oxygen emission (red, 615.7 nm).

In summary, the N<sup>+</sup> and 0 emissions are related to the channel temperature. The 0 (615.7 nm) emission is a qualitative indicator of  $\sim$  2 eV temperatures. The N<sup>+</sup> is a quantitative indicator with many lines ( $\lambda$  = 399.5, 404.1, 453.0, 463.0, 467.8 and 568.0 nm) suitable for time resolved temperature measurements.

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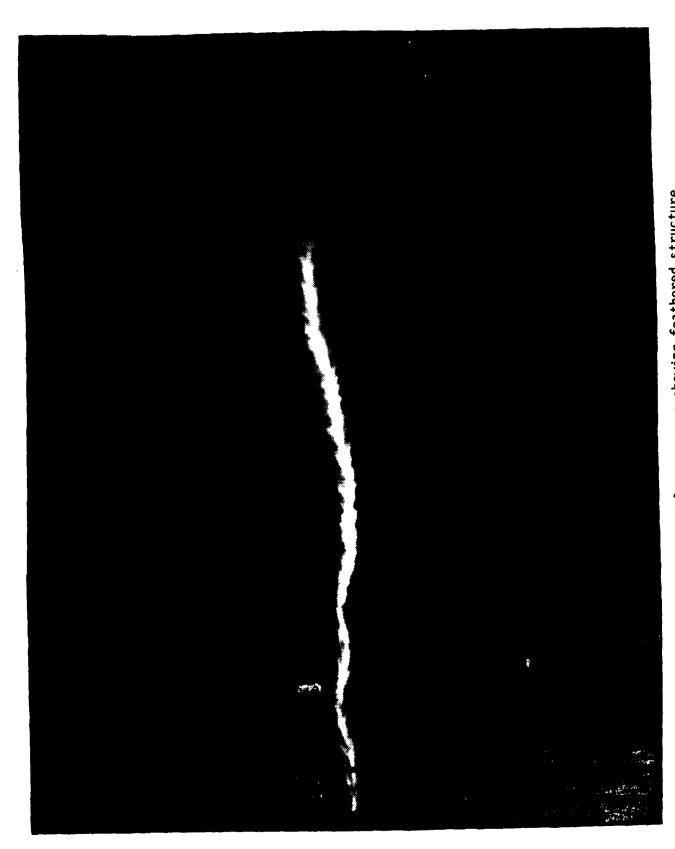


Figure 1. VISHNU beam propagation at low pressure showing feathered structure.

APPENDIX D

# APPENDIX D TICKLER ANALYSIS

An important problem in any study of beam instabilities is the initial perturbation. In this note we discuss the self-excited magnetic tickler option as a candidate for perturbing the beam for hose instability studies. The geometry is shown in Fig. 1, where a pickup loop (inductance L) is coupled to a capacitor of capacitance C. We first consider a beam current of the form  $I = I_0(1 - e^{-\alpha t})$ . The voltage induced will be distributed between L and C, and is given by  $(d/dt) \int B_\theta \ drdz \sim V$  or

$$V = \frac{\mu_0 I_0 \alpha \ell}{2\pi} \text{ an b/a } e^{-\alpha t}$$
 (1)

The equivalent circuit is an L-C resonator (we ignore damping for the moment)

$$V = LQ + Q/C$$
 (2)

where Q is the capacitor charge. Let  $q = \mathcal{L}[Q]$ , the Laplace transform of the charge with initial conditions  $Q(0) = \dot{Q}(0) = 0$ .

The Laplace transform of (2) is

$$\left[\frac{\mu_0 I_0 \alpha \ell \ell n b/a}{2\pi}\right] \left(\frac{1}{s+\alpha}\right) = L s^2 q + \frac{1}{C} q \qquad (3)$$

resulting in

$$q = \frac{A}{(s + \alpha)(s^{2} + \omega^{2})}$$

$$= \frac{A(s - \alpha)}{\omega^{2} + \alpha^{2}} \left[ \frac{1}{s^{2} - \alpha^{2}} - \frac{1}{s^{2} + \omega^{2}} \right]$$
 (4)

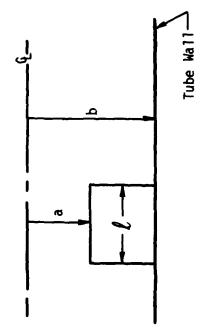


Figure 1.

where  $A = \mu_0 I \alpha \ell \ln (b/a)/2\pi L$ .

We invert the above expression for q as

$$Q = \frac{A}{\omega^2 + \alpha^2} \left[ e^{-\alpha t} + \frac{\alpha}{\omega} \sin \omega t - \cos \omega t \right]$$
 (5)

The current of the tickler  $I_t$  is given by

$$I_{t} = \frac{A}{\omega^{2} + \alpha^{2}} \left[ \alpha (\cos \omega t - e^{-\alpha t}) - \omega \sin \omega t \right]$$
 (6)

Using the vector potential of a square current  $loop^1$  in free space, we can calculate the total impulse applied to the beam.

If y is the distance of a particle from the system centroid, the impulse is found to be

$$\delta p_{y} = \frac{e \, \ell \, (b - a)}{(a - x) \, (b - x)} \quad \frac{\mu_{0} \, I_{t}}{4\pi} \tag{7}$$

Similarly, the pitch angle is

$$\phi = \delta p_y/p_z \sim \frac{\ell (b-a)}{(a-x)(b-x)} \frac{\mu_0 I_t}{4\pi \gamma mc}$$
 (8)

Substituting the expression for  $I_t$  into (8) we find

$$\phi = \frac{\ell (b-a)}{(a-x)(b-x)} \left[ \frac{\mu_0 \cdot l \cdot \ell \cdot ln \cdot b/a}{2\pi L} \right] \left[ \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi \cdot \gamma mc} \right]$$

$$\times \left[ \alpha \cdot (\cos\omega t - e^{-\alpha t}) - \omega \cdot \sin\omega t \right] \frac{1}{(\omega^2 + \alpha^2)}$$

$$= \frac{\ell \cdot (b-a)}{(a-x)(b-x)} \left[ \frac{\mu_0 \cdot \alpha \cdot \ell \cdot \ell n \cdot b/a}{2\pi \cdot L \cdot (\omega^2 + \alpha^2)} \right] \frac{I}{I_A}$$

$$\times \left[ \alpha \cdot (\cos\omega t - e^{-\alpha t}) - \omega \cdot \sin\omega t \right]$$

$$\approx \frac{\ell \cdot (b-a)}{(a-x)(b-x)} \left( \frac{\alpha}{\omega} \right) \left( \frac{\mu_0 \cdot \ell \cdot \ell n \cdot b/a}{2\pi \cdot L} \right) \frac{I}{I_A} \cdot \sin\omega t \qquad (9)$$

Thus, we have made an analytic estimate of perturbations due to at least one tickler geometry. The perturbation amplitudes for typical parameters vary from .2 - 5 mm.

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# APPENDIX E

#### APPENDIX E

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Date Entered)

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Electron beam propagation Particle simulations					
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and	d identify by black number)				
The propagation code CPROP and the linear theory code KMRAD are used to simulate the FX-100 beam propagating in air. When avalanching is significant, return current tends to concentrate on axis and defocuses the beam head. A strong filamentation instability accompanies large return current fractions. We attempt to correlate these results with the experimental data.					

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#### I. INTRODUCTION

Theoretical investigations in support of the FX-100 experiments have relied on two existing MRC computer codes: CPROP, which is a propagation code, and KMRAD, a linear theory code. The usefulness of these codes is hampered by lack of an air conductivity model whose known range of validity encompasses the 0.1-2.0 Torr regime. At present, CPROP uses a conductivity model developed for use at pressures in the range  $10^2-10^3$  Torr. The validity of this model at pressures in the neighborhood of 1 Torr is certainly questionable, but its degree of inaccuracy is unknown. We shall interpret our numerical results in this light and seek to extract information which will guide future efforts.

The CPROP model for the beam is straightforward. The beam is initialized with current and voltage ramps close to those measured experimentally, and is given a Bennett profile in radius (Fig. 1). Due to computing expense and computer core limitations only the first 15 ns of the pulse werr \_imulated. At each location in z (direction of propagation) the beam particles were assigned an emittance based on an approximate formula for the scattering produced by the titanium anode foil.<sup>2</sup> The initialization of the code is completed by computing the self-consistent fields, conductivity, and return current in the frozen field approximation<sup>3</sup> (the initialization is the only stage at which this approximation is used by CPROP).

The code KMRAD requires the input of a beam equilibrium and conductivity profile. It provides linear growth rates and is much cheaper to run than CPROP. It simulates only the body of the pulse and cannot deal with the head of the beam.

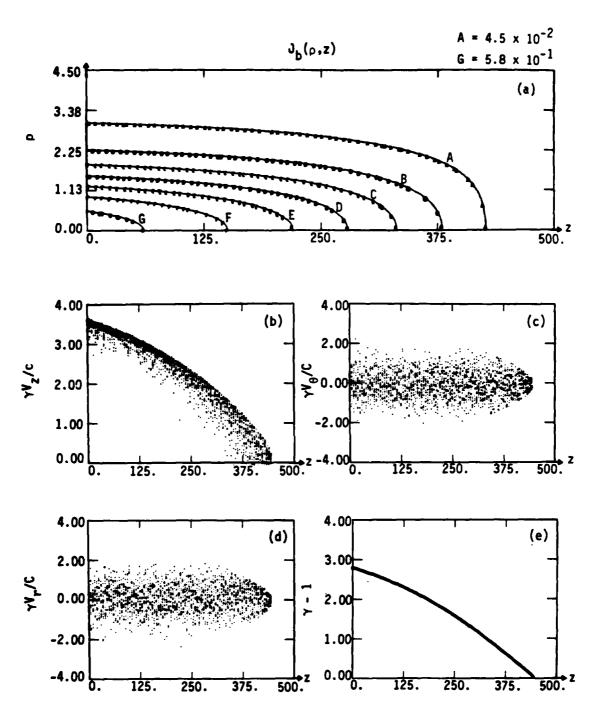


Figure 1. Initialization of CPROP at 0.4 Torr. Part (a) shows contours of the beam current density  $J_b(\rho,z)$  in units of 17 kA/cm². The values of the contours, labeled by A, B, C, D, E, F, G, are linearly spaced. The z coordinate is in cm. The radial coordinate  $\rho$  is related to the physical coordinate r by  $\rho$  = aln(1 + r/a) where a is the Bennett radius in cm. The Bennett radius is at  $\rho$  = 2.2. In (b), (c), (d), (e) phase plots of the beam are depicted. The current and voltage ramps in (a) and (e), respectively, are approximately those of the experiment.

#### II. NUMERICAL RESULTS

The result of initializing CPROP at a pressure of 0.4 Torr, which is in the experimental propagation window, is shown in Fig. 2. This figure shows the presence of both an electrostatic radial and an inductive longitudinal electric field at the head of the beam where the conductivity is lowest. Comparing Fig. 2 with Fig. 3, we see that the avalanching these fields produce have a large effect on the magnitude and profile of the return current. In Fig. 2, the return current fraction obtained is f = 80% and the return current is more peaked on axis than the beam current so that the  $B_{\text{A}}$  field peaks near the wall instead of at the Bennett radius. When the particles are "let go," the beam expands out radially and loses almost one third of the particles to the wall before contracting. Most of these lost particles come from the nose of the beam. The beam continues to bounce but few particles are subsequently lost. It has been suggested that at low pressures, avalanching will not occur on a significant scale because of the long mean free path of secondary electrons. With avalanching turned off in CPROP, we obtain f = 35% and the return current has approximately the same radial profile as the beam. If propagated, this beam will start to pinch inward. The experimental evidence tends to favor the inclusion of avalanching in the conductivity model. At pressures near 0.35 Torr, return current fractions of 80 - 95% are observed near the diode. Furthermore, several open shutter photographs taken near the diode (Fig. 4a) show some of the beam blowing off radially.

The large conductivity produced by avalanching leads to a long magnetic decay time for the monopole return current,  $\tau$  ~ 900 ns (the pulse length is about 120 ns). This means that the resistive instabilities most likely to develop are those with short transverse wavelength  $\lambda_{\perp}$ , i.e. filamentary instabilities, since the magnetic decay time is proportional to  $\lambda_{\perp}^2$ . The linearized simulation code KMRAD was used to look for such instabilities. The open shutter photographs seem to indicate that the fine structure in the beam is azimuthally symmetric so we set m=0

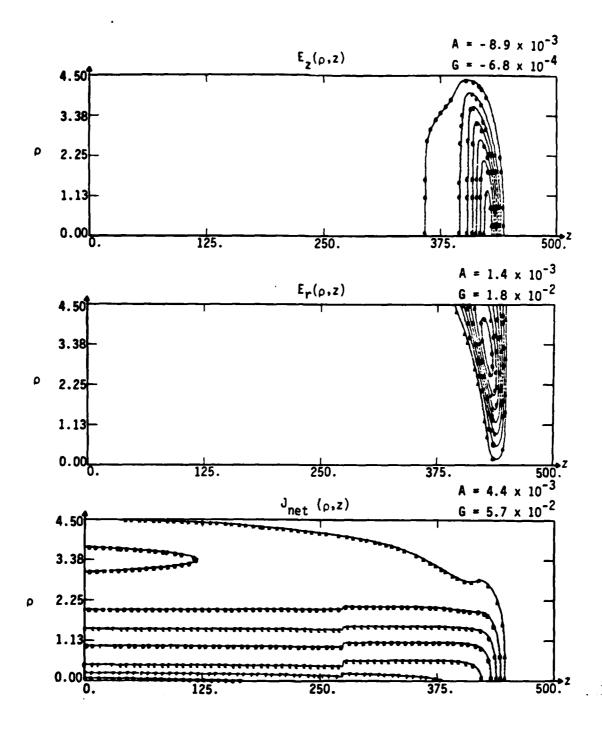
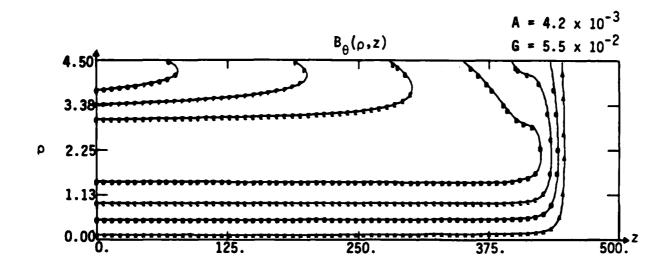


Figure 2. Contour plots of the fields  $E_Z$ ,  $E_T$ , in units of 0.51 MV/cm, the  $B_\theta$  field in units of 0.51 x  $10^4/3$  gauss, the z component of the net current density  $J_{net}$ , and the conductivity  $\sigma$  in units of 3 x  $10^{10}/4\pi$  sec<sup>-1</sup>, at an air pressure of 0.4 Torr. Avalanching is included in the conductivity model.



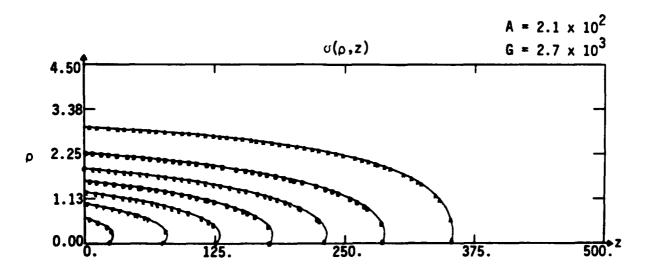


Figure 2 (continued).

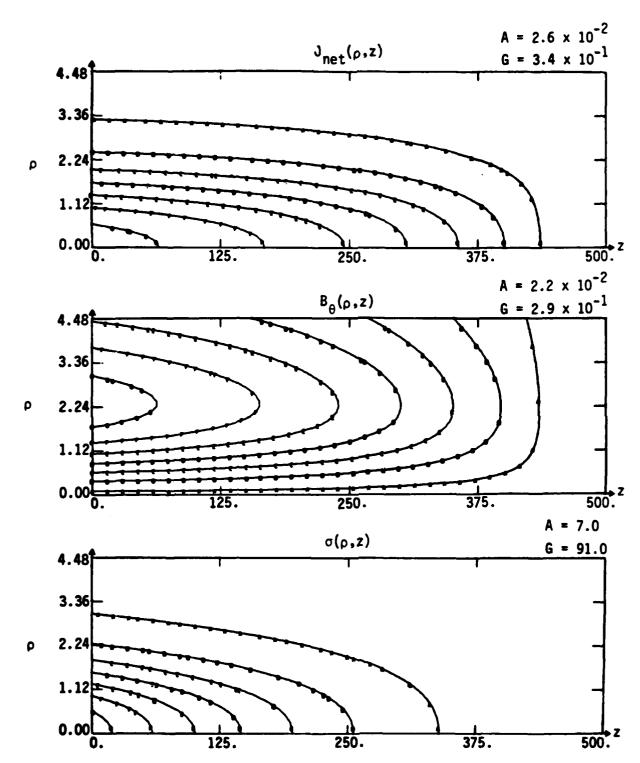
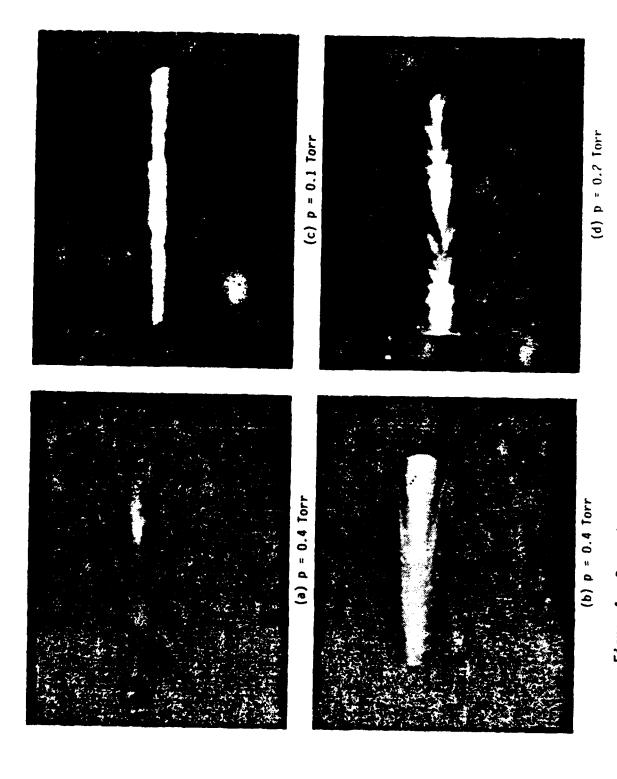


Figure 3. Contour plots of  $J_{net}$ ,  $B_8$ , and  $\sigma$  with the same normalization as in Fig. 2, also at 0.4 Torr. The avalanching term in the conductivity model has been removed.



Open shutter photographs of the FX-100 beam at various air pressures (p). The beam is propagating from left to right. In (a), (c) and (d), the camera is positioned 13 cm downstream from the diode. In (b), it is 4.4 m downstream. Figure 4.

in the simulations. We chose a return current fraction of 95% and the return current and conductivity profiles were assumed to follow the beam profile. The magnitude of the conductivity was taken from CPROP. We found growth rates on the order of 2 x  $10^8~{\rm sec}^{-1}$ , with a transverse wavelength of 0.8 - 1 cm (The beam Bennett radius is 3 cm). The growth rates are largest for  $k_2 << k_{\perp}$  which corresponds to low real frequencies, and low group velocities. The latter implies that the number of e-foldings which the instability can undergo is roughly  $N_{\gamma} \approx \gamma \tau_{\rm p}$ , where  $\gamma$  is the growth-rate and  $\tau_{\rm p}$  is the pulse length. Assuming that our estimate of the growth rate is reasonable, then  $N_{\gamma} \approx 20$  can be attained, which would allow the instability to develop strongly. However, while these calculations are suggestive, the experimental data is not detailed enough to allow us to rule out other explanations for the fine structure seen both in the open shutter (Figs. 4b, 4d) and streak photographs.

At lower pressures, in the neighborhood of 0.1 Torr, CPROP predicts return current fractions of about 70%, and a return current profile close to that of the beam current (Fig. 5). When propagated, the beam collapses to a smaller radius than its initial one of 3 cm. This behavior is qualitatively similar to that observed experimentally. The measured return current fraction is about 45% and the open shutter photographs (Fig. 4c) show a pinched beam with a radius of about 2 cm.

No significant nose erosion is seen experimentally. CPROP predicts that at p=0.4 Torr, the beam loses about 1 meter in propagating the first 2 meters, as we see by comparing Figs. 1 and 6. This erosion is at the limit of the experimental precision. The steepening of the longitudinal beam current profile in Fig. 6 gives rise to an increase in the amplitude of  $E_Z$  at the beam head by a factor of six over its value at t=0 (Fig. 2). This does not lead to a dramatic increase in the erosion rate however since the beam energy  $\gamma$  also increases as one moves back from the head.

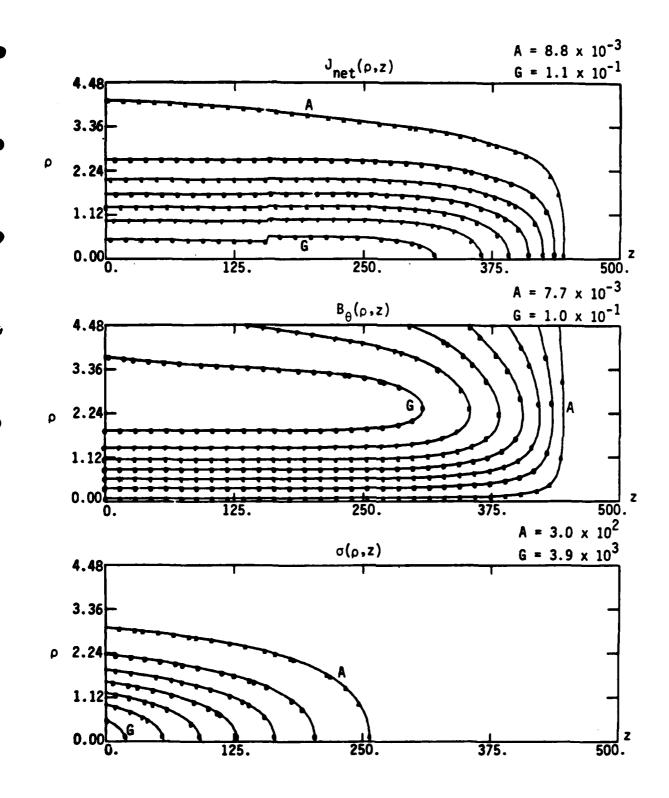


Figure 5. Contour plots of  $J_{\text{net}}$ ,  $B_{\theta}$  and  $\sigma$  at 0.125 Torr. Avalanching is included.

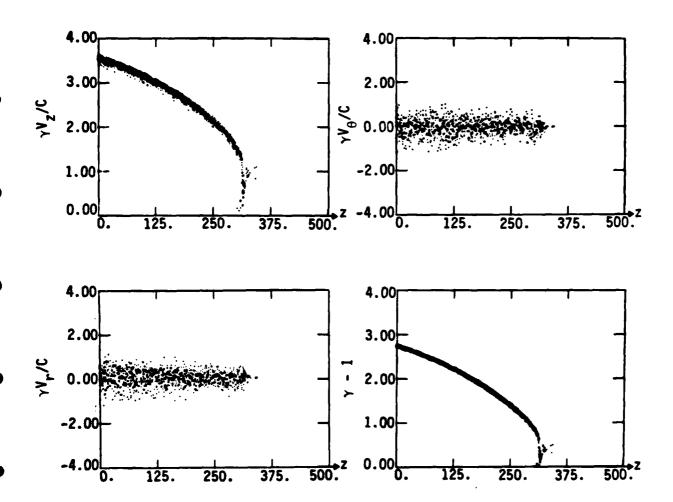


Figure 6. Phase plots of beam after traveling two meters through air at 0.4 Torr, showing nose erosion. Cf. Fig. 1.

### III. SUMMARY

We have used the simulation codes CPROP and KMRAD to attempt to explain some of the phenomena seen in the FX-100 experiments. Since we have doubts about the appropriateness of the conductivity model employed, our conclusions are tentative. The simulations show that:

- (1) The large return current fractions measured experimentally near 0.4 Torr and above are consistent with the presence of avalanching.
- (2) At 0.4 Torr and above, avalanching causes the return current to concentrate on axis, and this may be responsible for the radial blowing-off of some of the beam seen in open shutter photographs.
- (3) Resistive filamentation instabilities driven by the large return current fraction may be the source of the fine structure seen in open shutter and streak photographs at 0.2 0.4 Torr.
- (4) Near 0.1 Torr the return current profile tends to follow the beam current profile.

To put the above conclusions on a more secure footing, an improved conductivity model is essential. In addition, more carefully controlled experimental conditions would benefit future work. In the present series of experiments, the beam exhibited diverse behavior on different shots under apparently identical conditions.

### **ACKNOWLEDGMENT**

We would like to thank Dr. Winston Bostick and Mr. Ray Lemke for useful conversations.

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# APPENDIX F

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Date Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION	PAGE	READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
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#### **ABSTRACT**

The Monte Carlo transport code CYLTRAN is used to study electron transport and scattering in a Faraday cup consisting of a small cross section coaxial cable surrounded concentrically by a massive carbon block. Electrons impinging on the center wire of the coax generate a signal proportional to the electron beam current. As expected, it is found that the effective cross section of the wire is greater than its geometrical cross section due to scattering of primaries into it. The cross section is only slightly modified by production and deposition of secondary electrons in the form of knockons. These effects are dependent on electron beam energy.

#### PROBLEM CONFIGURATION

The design of a small aperture Faraday cup to measure electron beam current is given in Figure 1. It consists of a UT-47 coaxial cable embedded in a cylindrically shaped massive carbon block. In experiments, the block is sufficiently large in axial and radial extent to stop all primary and secondary electrons. Figure 1 depicts the accurate coaxial cable dimensions. However, the carbon block shown was utilized in code runs to minimize necessary computer time. The length is sufficient to effectively stop all electrons up to 4 MeV - the maximum energy tested. Because we were not interested in electrons scattered outward, the block radius was set equal to the beam radius.

#### **CODE RESULTS**

The Monte Carlo transport code CYLTRAN was used in this study. It is particularly suitable, because it can calculate both electron and photon transport in cylindrical geometry. The problem may involve up to five materials each consisting of a maximum of ten elements without code modification. The problem cylinder may be zoned axially and radially into 100 compartments, if necessary. CYLTRAN is detailed in Reference 1.

Data on materials used in the Faraday cup pertaining to beam stopping power, range and radiation yield up to a maximum beam energy of 4 MeV is compiled in Appendix A. It is generated based on material density, composition, and tabulated cross sections for the various elements.

The largest obstacle in producing statistically significant results from this problem was the exceedingly small ratio of the area of the central wire, which generates the signal, to the beam area. That ratio is  $.367 \times 10^{-3}$ . The beam is assumed to have a uniform current density and is monoenergetic. Increasing the particle substep size in zones comprising

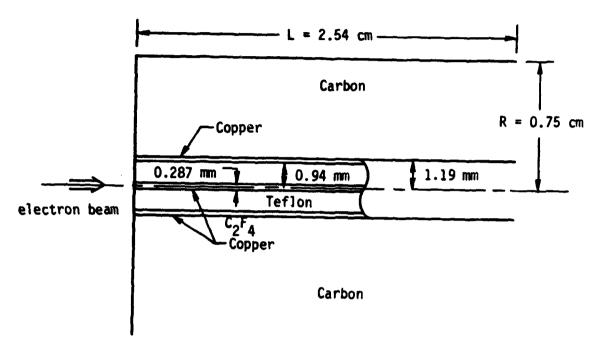


Figure 1. Physical dimensions and material composition of a small aperture faraday cup. The electron beam in uniformly distributed over the entire cross sectional area.

the coaxial cable improved the statistics only marginally. Eventually, ten batches of 3000 particles were utilitzed. Further statistical improvement could be obtained by increasing the number of primaries. However, the increased accuracy was not deemed necessary for the present application.

The main purpose of this study was to determine the amount of charge deposited in the central wire due to scattering and secondary electron producton versus that predicted from its cross section area. Electrons with energies greater than approximately 10 keV were followed. It was found that the number of electrons deposited was several times larger than could be explained by purely geometric considerations. This is the result of the higher density of copper in relation to the other materials present in the problem. The higher density results in a shorter range and larger stopping power for electrons in the wire than in carbon or Teflon. This effect was observed over the range of energies studied from 1 to 4 MeV. Results are presented in Figure 2. The error bars are too large to derive an exact energy dependence for the ratio of effective to geometric cross sections. However, it appears to be logarithmic in energy. Finally, it is noteworthy that although, depending on beam energy, five to ten secondary electrons are created for each primary electron, they insignificantly modify the charge distribution in the various zones. This indicates that on average the number of knockons created in a zone is equal to the number whose histories are terminated in that zone by dropping below the minimum energy level of 10 keV.

#### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

The author is pleased to acknowledge helpful discussions with J. Mack of Los Alamos National Laboratory and J. A. Halbleib of Sandia National Laboratory on the use of the CYLTRAN code.

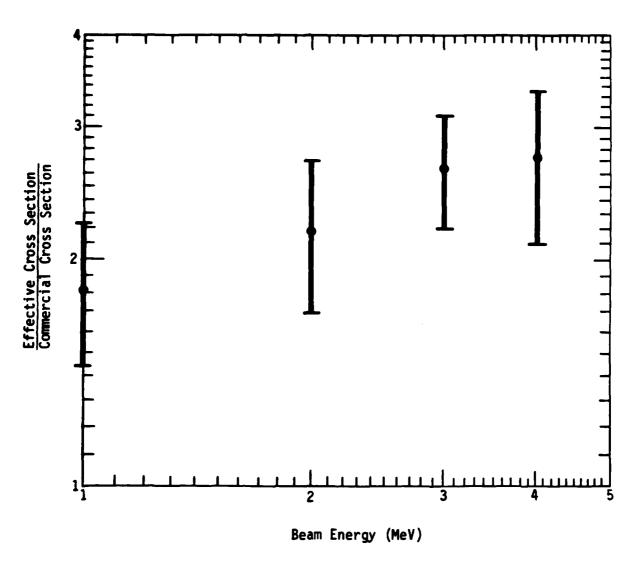


Figure 2. Ratio of effective to geometrical cross section versus electron beam energy.

## REFERENCES

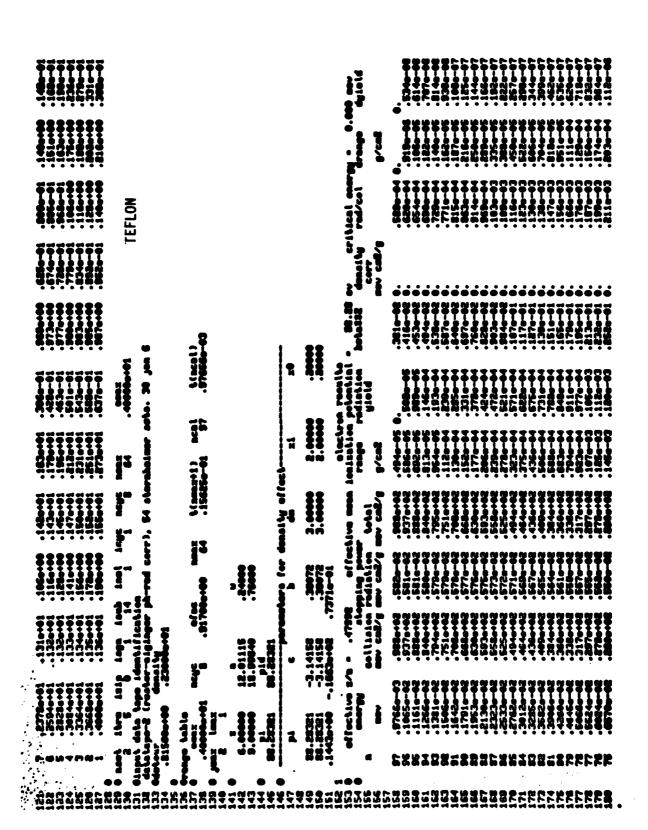
J. A. Halbleib Sr. and W. H. Vandevender, <u>CYLTRAN</u>: <u>A Cylindrical-Geometry Multimaterial Electron/Photon Monte Carlo Transport Code</u>, <u>SAND</u> 74-0030, <u>Sandia National Laboratories</u>, (1975), unpublished.

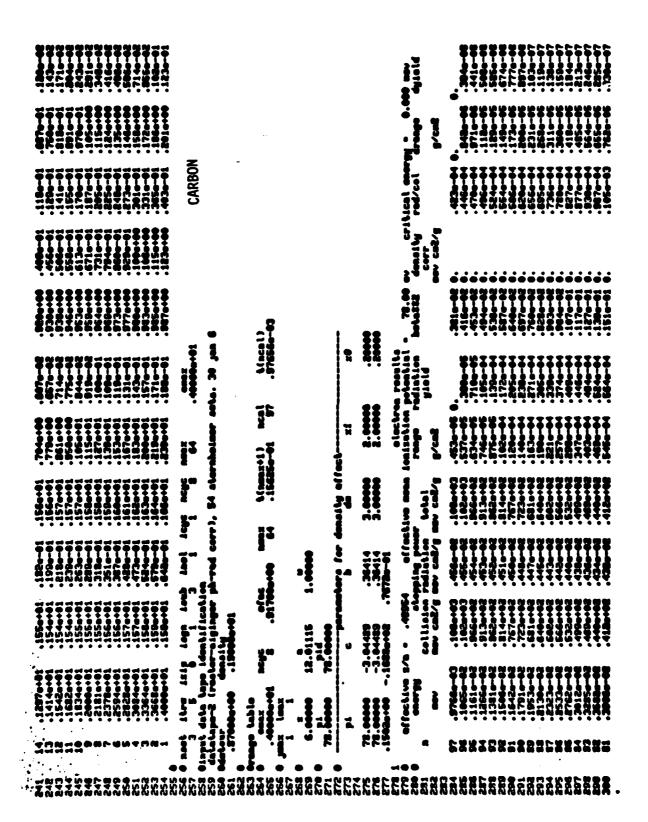
APPENDIX A

FARADAY CUP MATERIAL DATA

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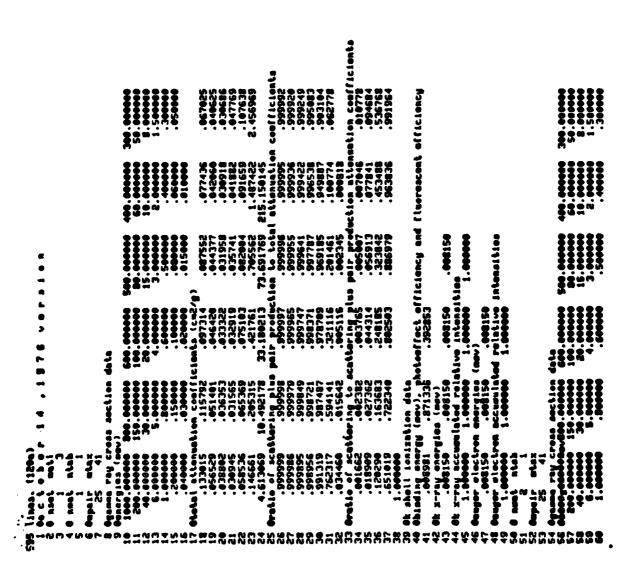




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# APPENDIX B

Tabulated CYLTRAN Output for 1, 2, 3, and 4 MeV Monoenergetic Electron Beams Into a Small Aperture Faraday Cup



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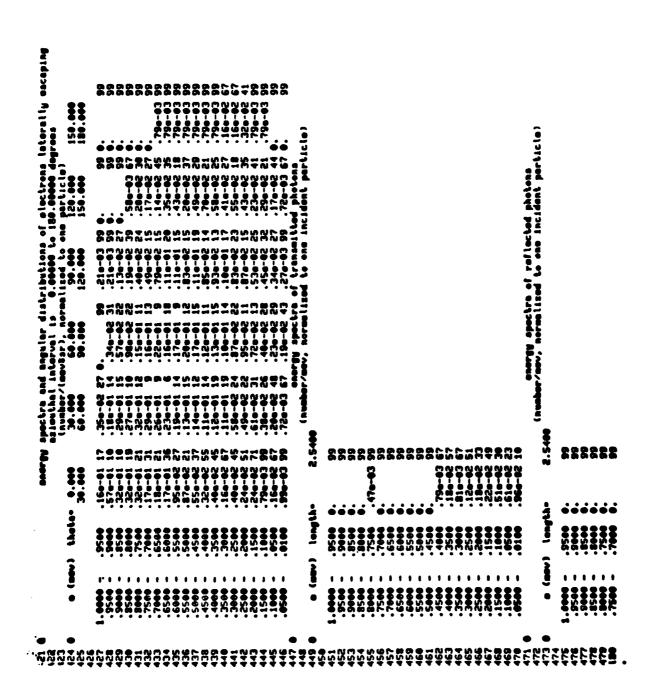
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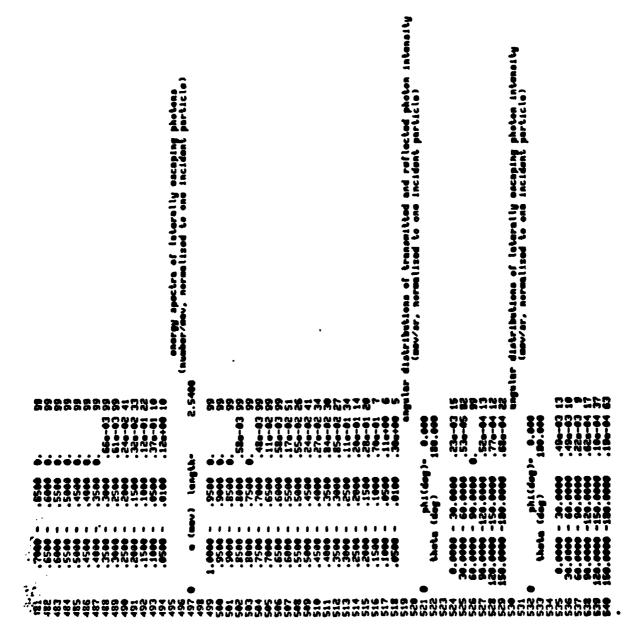
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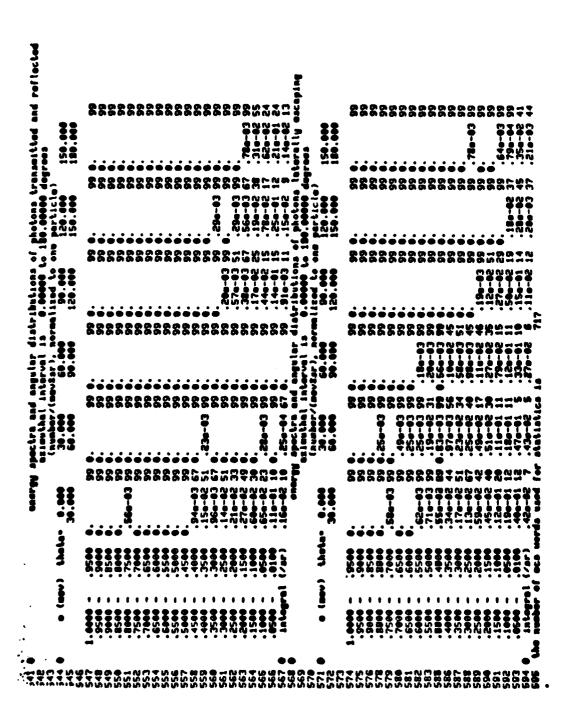
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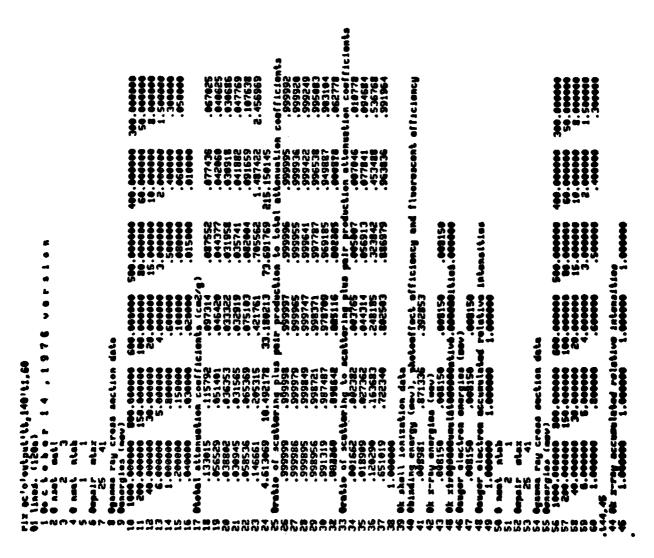
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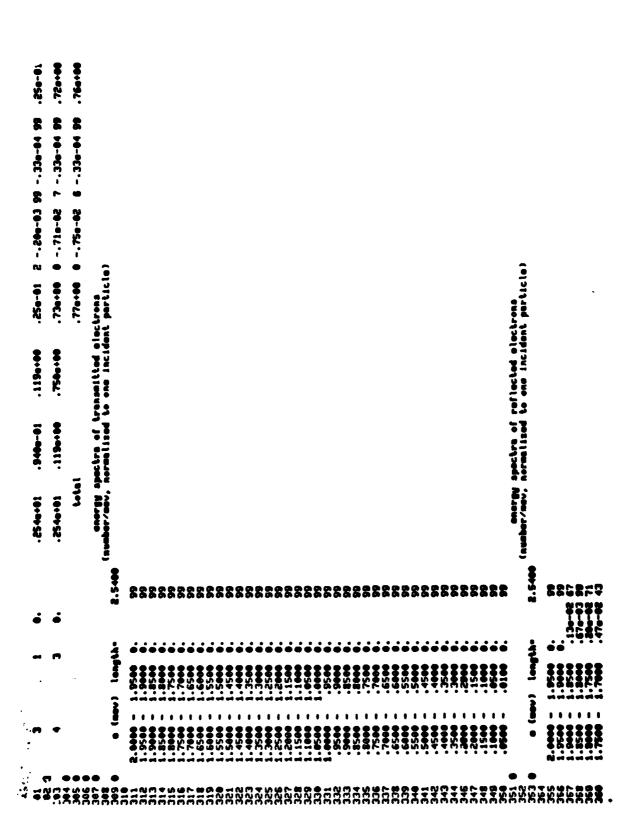
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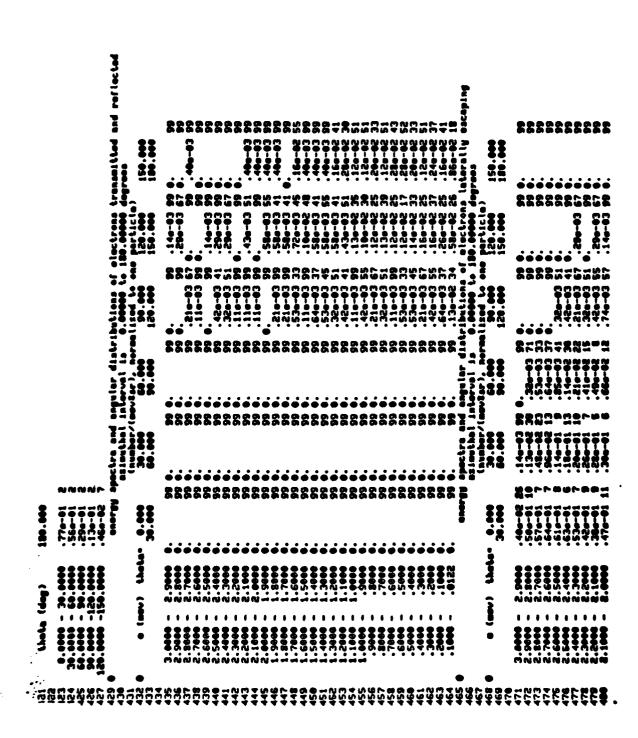
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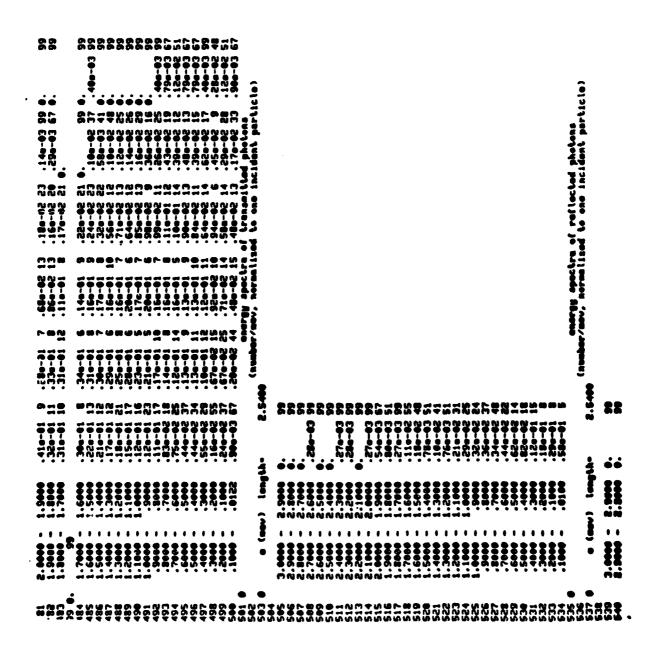
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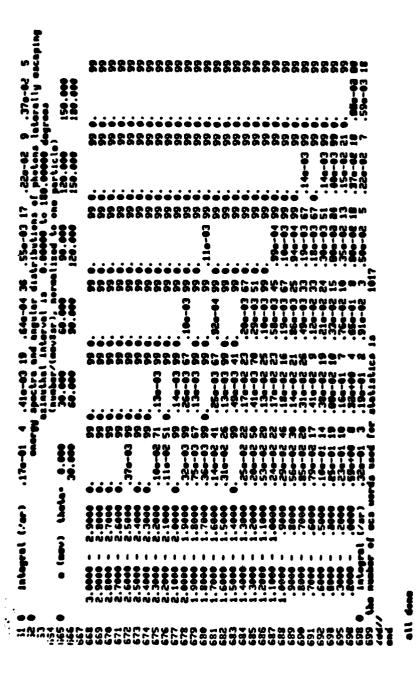


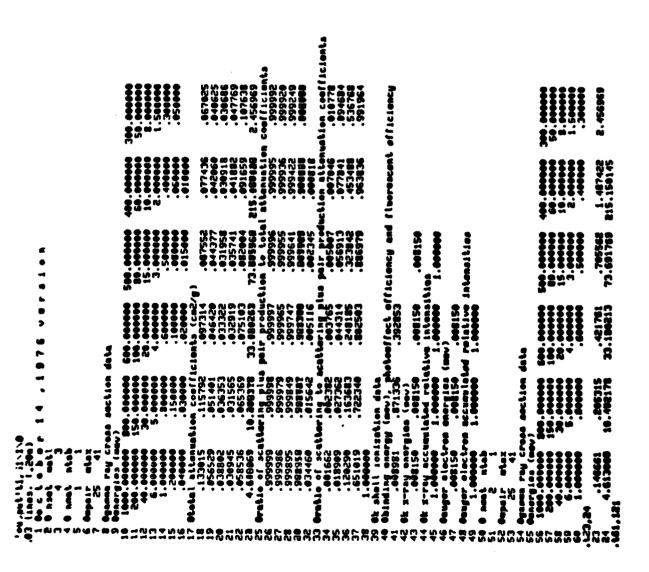


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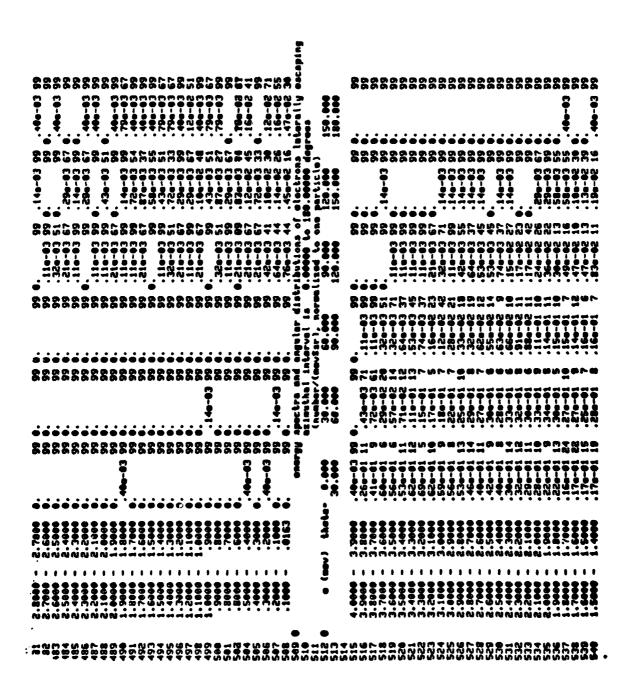
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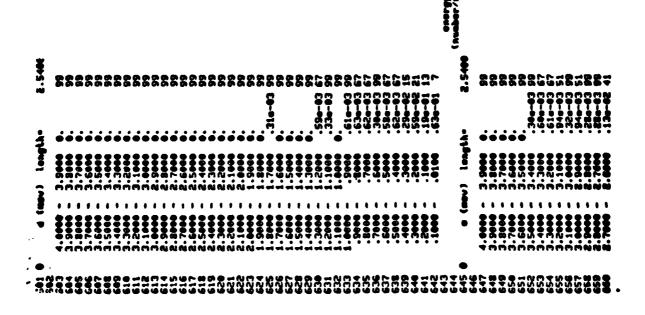
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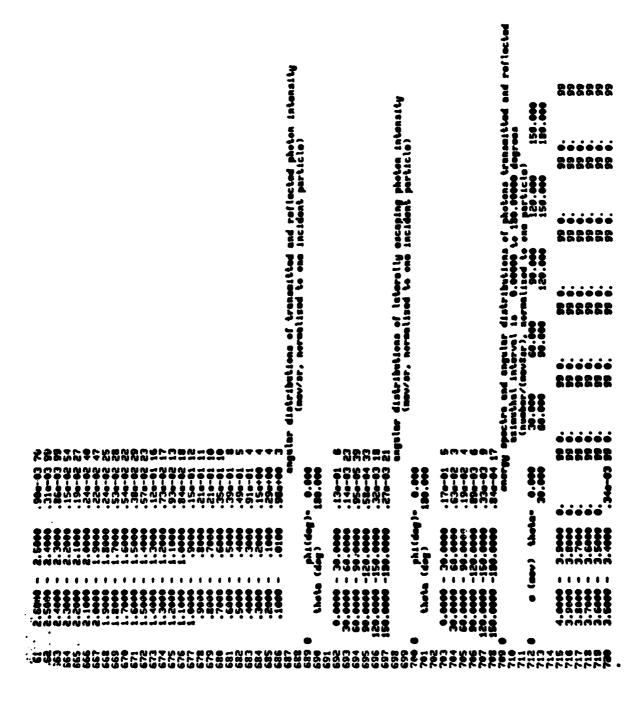
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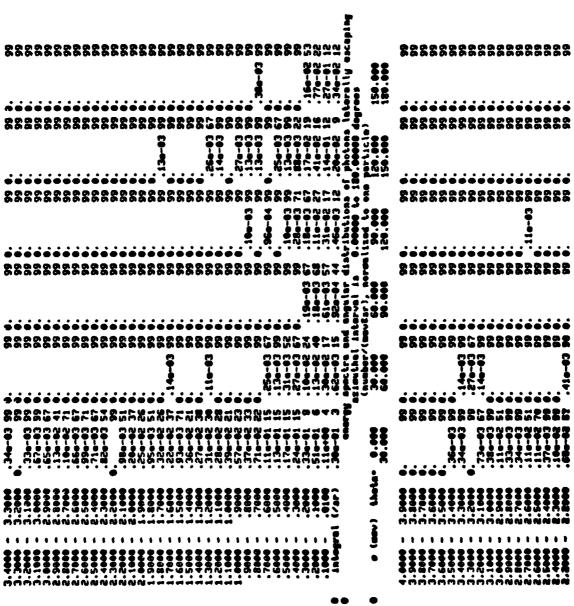
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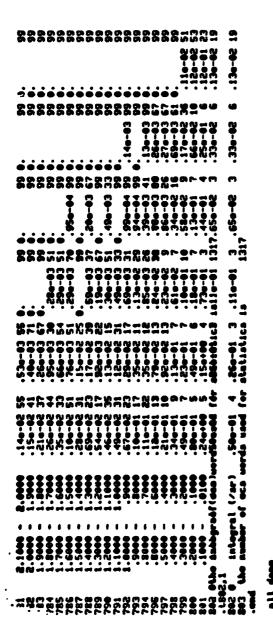






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# APPENDIX G

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#### **ABSTRACT**

The Monte Carlo transport of a 1.5 MeV electron beam in low density and full atmosphere air is studied. At a pressure of 0.5 Torr virtually none of the beam is deflected in 10 meters due to classical scattering or bremsstrahlung. At 760 Torr the beam is scattered in less than 2 meters. The main purpose of this research was to determine the angular dependence of secondary electrons (delta rays) leaving the beam-air interaction region on their energy. At low pressure, excellent agreement is observed between code results and an analytical formula for the scattering angle as a function of delta ray energy down to energies of a few tens of keV.

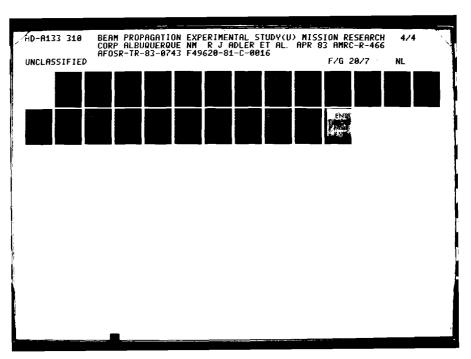
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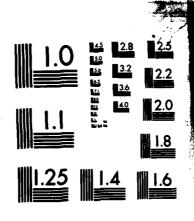
A monoenergetic 1.5 MeV electron beam of radius 3.8 cm is injected into a cylindrical column of air 10 cm in radius and 10 meters deep. The air is composed of 79% Nitrogen, 20 % oxygen and 1% Argon. The low pressure simulation at 0.5 Torr is sectioned into 80 zones in an attempt to determine where the beam energy is deposited. The high pressure run at 760 Torr is divided into 2 zones from 0 to 2, and 2 to 10 meters. The primary purpose of this was to reduce computer running time, because we were mainly interested in the angular distribution of delta rays (secondary electrons) as a function of their energy. At high pressure, however, the angular dependence was unobtainable.

### RESULTS

The Monte Carlo transport code CYLTRAN was used in this study. It is particuarly suitable, because it can calculate both electron and photon transport in cylindrical geometry. The problem may involve up to five materials each consisting of a maximum of ten elements without code modification. The problem cylinder may be zoned axially and radially into 100 compartments, if necessary. CYLTRAN is detailed in Reference 1.

Data on air at 0.5 Torr pertaining to beam stopping power, range and radiation yield up to a maximum beam energy of 1.5 MeV is compiled in Appendix A. It is generated based on material density, composition, and tabulated cross sections for the various elements. Transport data for the electron beam in 0.5 Torr air is also given in Appendix A. It shows that all of the electron beam is transmitted. Only those zones within the beam path have any energy from primary electrons deposited in them. Total energy deposition from primary and secondary electrons is .10%. No charge deposition due to primaries is recorded. Charge loss from secondaries leaving the beam volume is .7%. The 500,000 incident beam electrons generate only 3440 secondary electrons - all knockons. This results in rather





MICROCOPY RESOLUTION TEST CHART NATIONAL BUREAU OF STANDARDS-1963-A poor statistics for delta ray production and angular dependence on energy. Nevertheless, those points which can be plotted show excellent agreement with an already existing, well-known formula for the angular dependence of delta rays. The equation which was derived from momentum and energy conservation, is

$$\cos \theta = \frac{W}{E} \left( \frac{E + 2 \text{ mc}^2}{W + 2 \text{mc}^2} \right)^{1/2} \tag{1}$$

where E is the primary electron energy and w and  $\theta$  are the delta ray energy and scattering angle. Equation (1) and the points derived from the CYLTRAN program are given in Figure 1.

A second run at full atmospheric pressure was made. CYLTRAN results at this higher pressure are given in Appendix B. In contrast with the prior results, all beam electrons are scattered with virtually all escaping the air cylinder laterally in less than 2 meters. A small percentage (< .2%) are reflected, but none are stopped in the cylinder volume. On average each primary deposits 9.1% of its energy to create .7 knockons/primary. Note, however, that delta rays which are created with energy of less than 10 keV are ignored, so that this number is an underestimate. Because the vast majority of the beam electrons are escaping laterally along with those deltas with sufficient energy to escape the cylinder, it is impossible to determine delta ray angular dependence on energy. Each 10° angular bin has electrons of all possible energies (1.5 MeV to 10 keV) in it. A code update which provides separate data on escaping primary and secondary electrons will be necessary to resolve this problem.

### **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

The author is pleased to acknowledge helpful discussions with J. Mack of Los Alamos National Laboratory and J. A. Halbleib of Sandia National Laboratory on the use of the CYLTRAN code.

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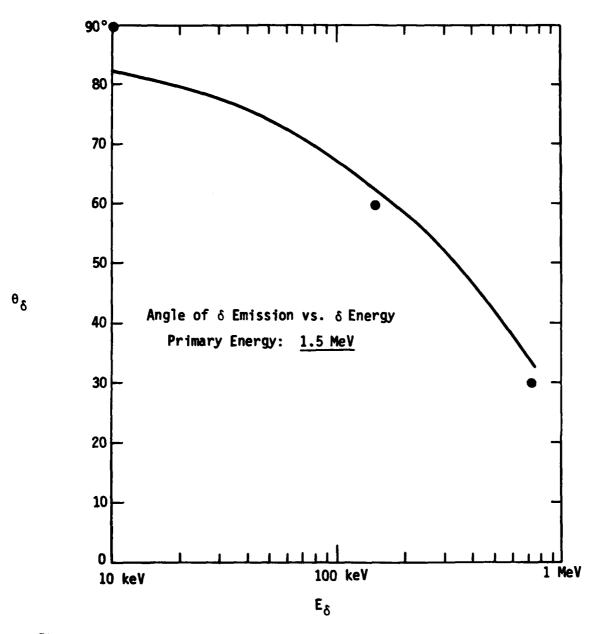


Figure 1. Angular dependence of delta rays on their energy for a 1.5 MeV beam. The solid line results from Equation (1). The points are based on CYLTRAN for air at 0.5 Torr.

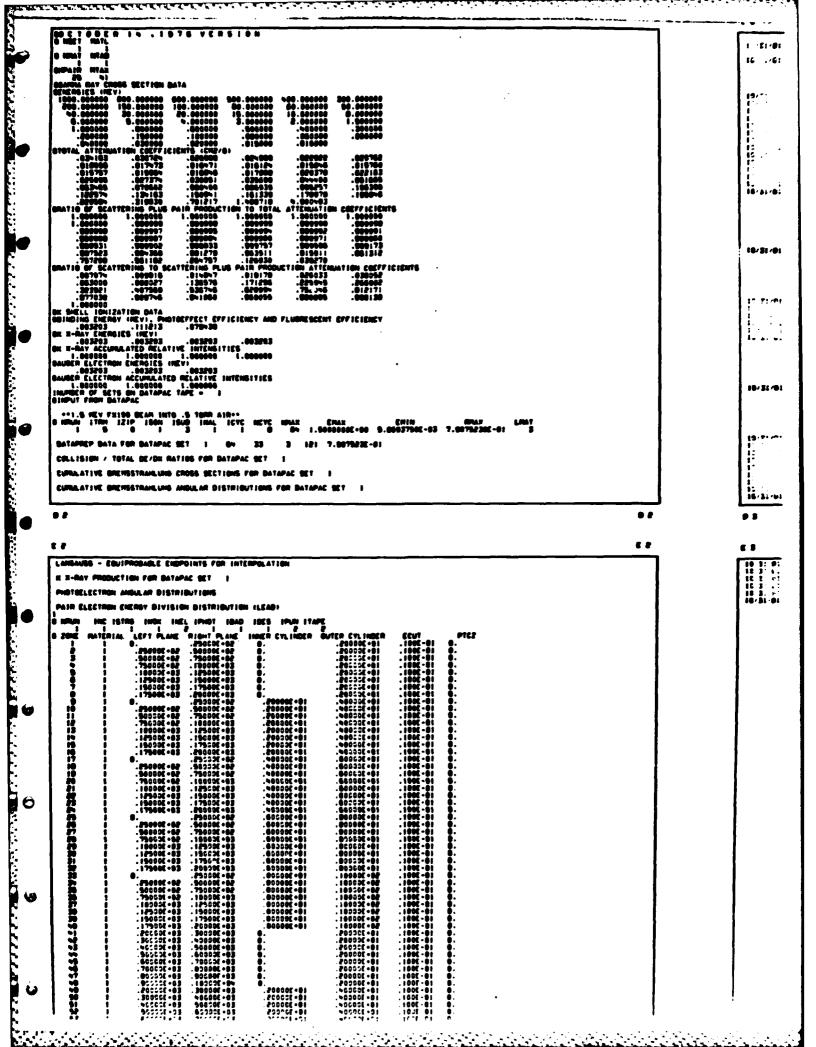
### **REFERENCES**

1. J. A. Halbleib Sr. and W. H. Vandevender, <u>CYLTRAN: A Cylindrical-Geometry Multimaterial Electron/Photon Monte Carlo Transport Code</u>, SAND 74-0030, Sandia National Laboratories, (1975), unpublished.

## APPENDIX A

AIR PROPERTIES AND 1.5 MeV ELECTRON BEAM TRANSPORT AT 0.5 TORR

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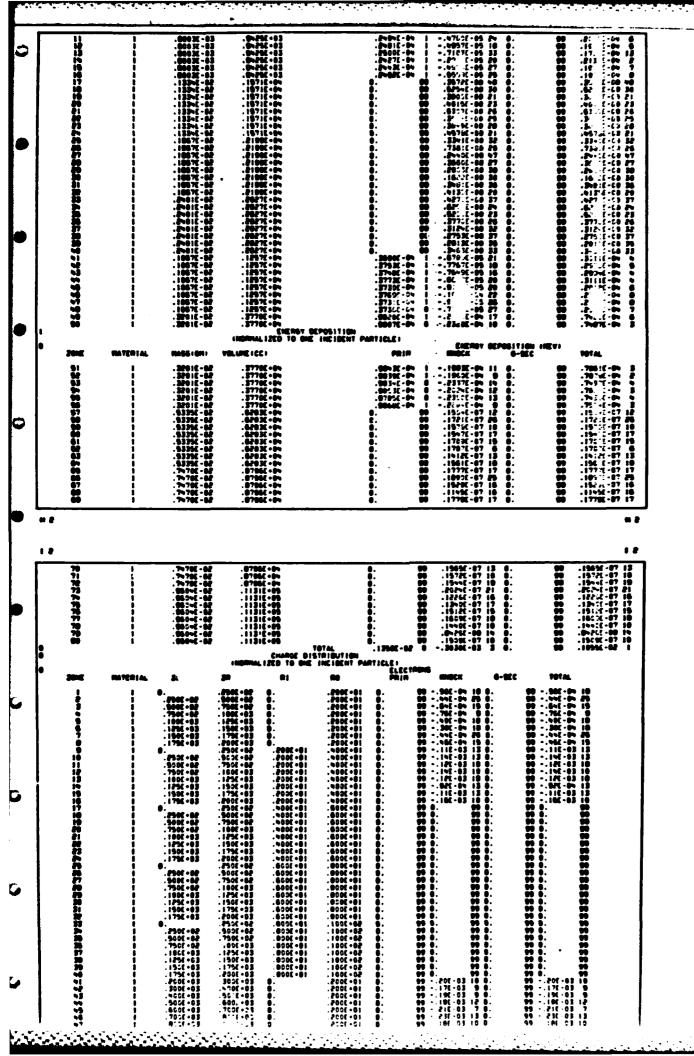


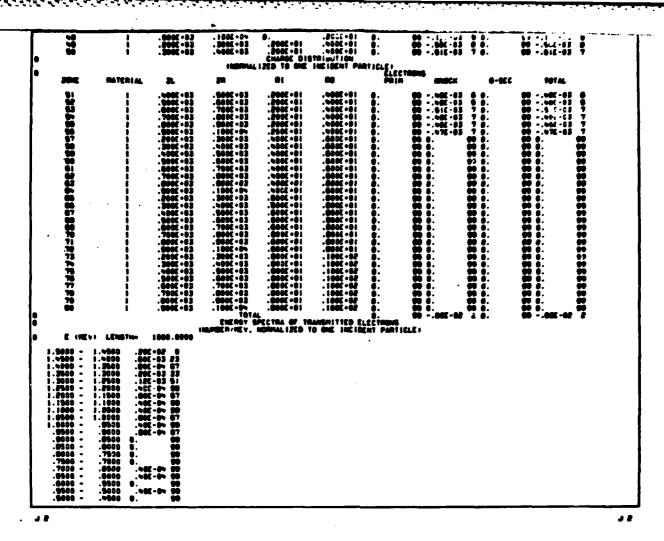
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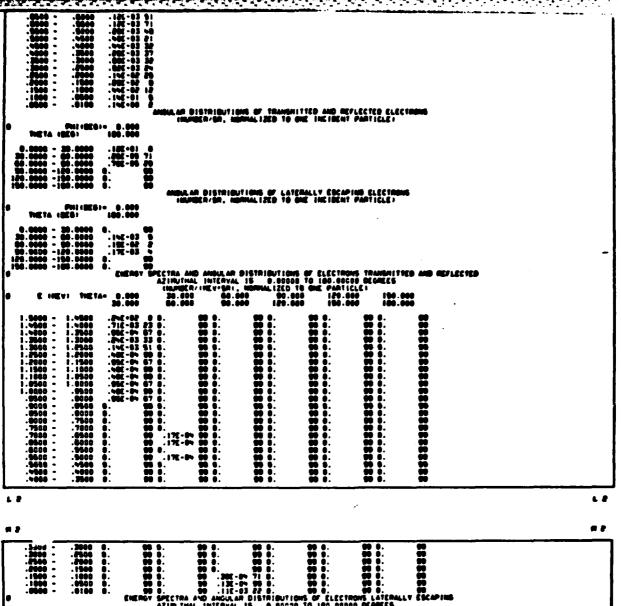
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MANGER COEFFICIENTS - MICCE-ONE. PHOTON DESCENDANTS TRANSPISSION METLECTION. **:** 0:072-02 LATERAL ESCAPE GEN AND ENEMOY COEFFICIENTS
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-- ELECTRON ------ENEMOY COUNTS CYLINGER BIRENSIGNS LENGTHICH: RADIUSICHI PHOTON .192+91 8 900014 METLECTION --- ELECTION ------ENEMBY COUNTS .306-06-09 .1005-02 CYLINDER BIRENSIONS LENGTHICH: RABIUSIERI 0-305. S 20-305. S 20-305. S 20 ENERGY DEPOSITION SECURITY PARTICLES ENEMOT DEPOSITION KNOCK 6-SEC MASS ( GM ) 204 MATERIAL . 2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 .2640(-83 \$142f +03 104 354 fg. 105 354 .96+16-05 .930-71-05 .936-6-05 .936-6-05 .936-6-05 .901-86-05 .901-86-05 .901-6-05 .901-6-05 .901-05 39965. -30965. -30916. -309111. -30111. -30155. -30156. -30166. -.87%[-85 .7000[-05 .53%[-05 .%2%[-05 .%2%[-05 .62%[-05 .7573[-05 .7573[-05 .7582[-05 .1596[-06 .1654[-36 05 60-66 60-65 60-55 60-01 60-05 60-05 60-65 60-333333333 19222 · · · · · · · ------

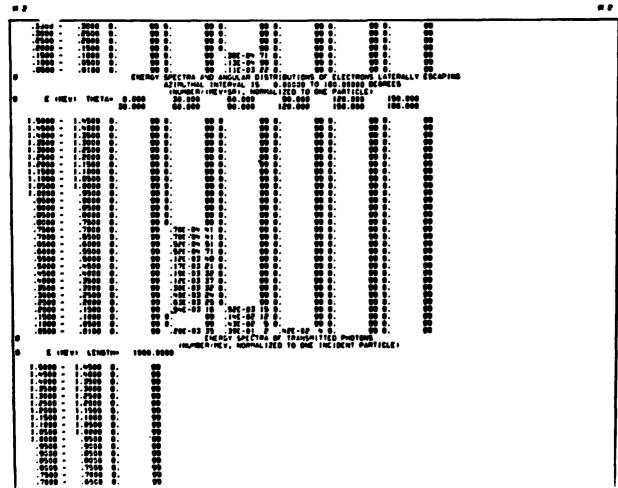
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# APPENDIX B

AIR PROPERTIES AND 1.5 MeV ELECTRON BEAM TRANSPORT AT 760 TORR

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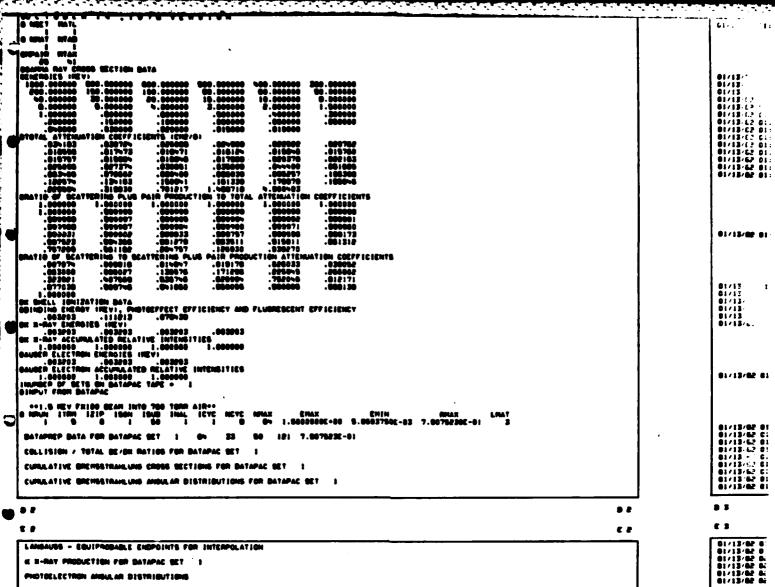
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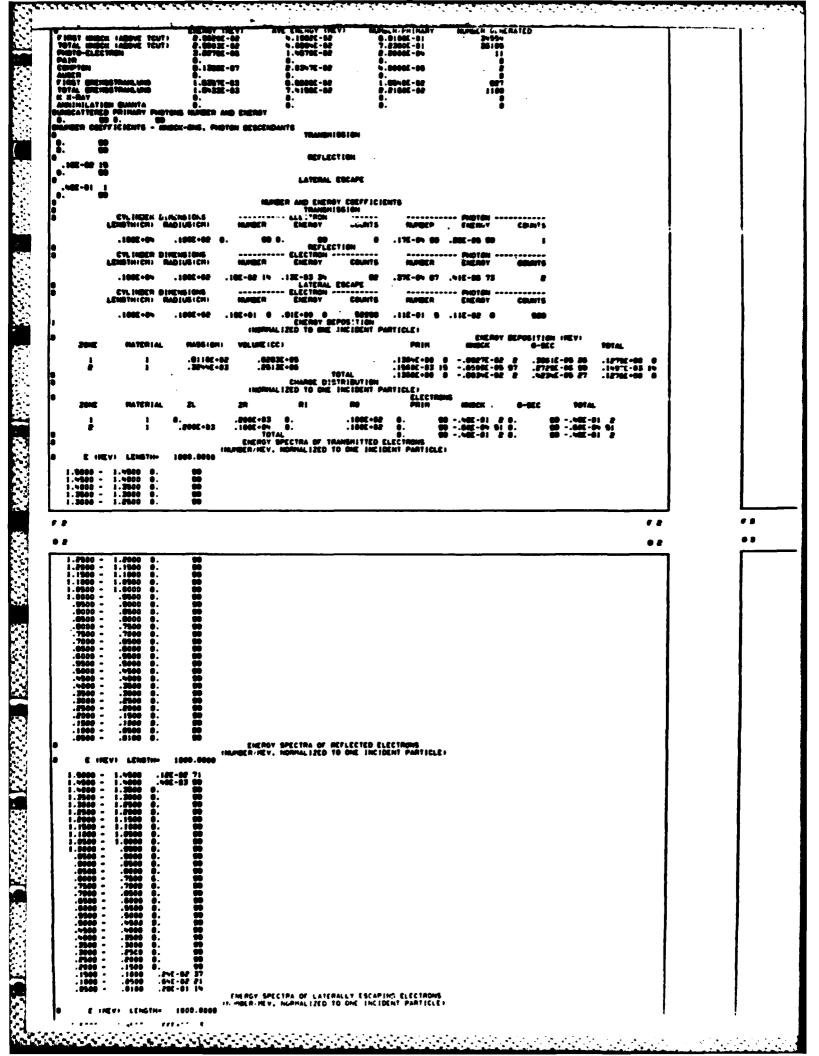
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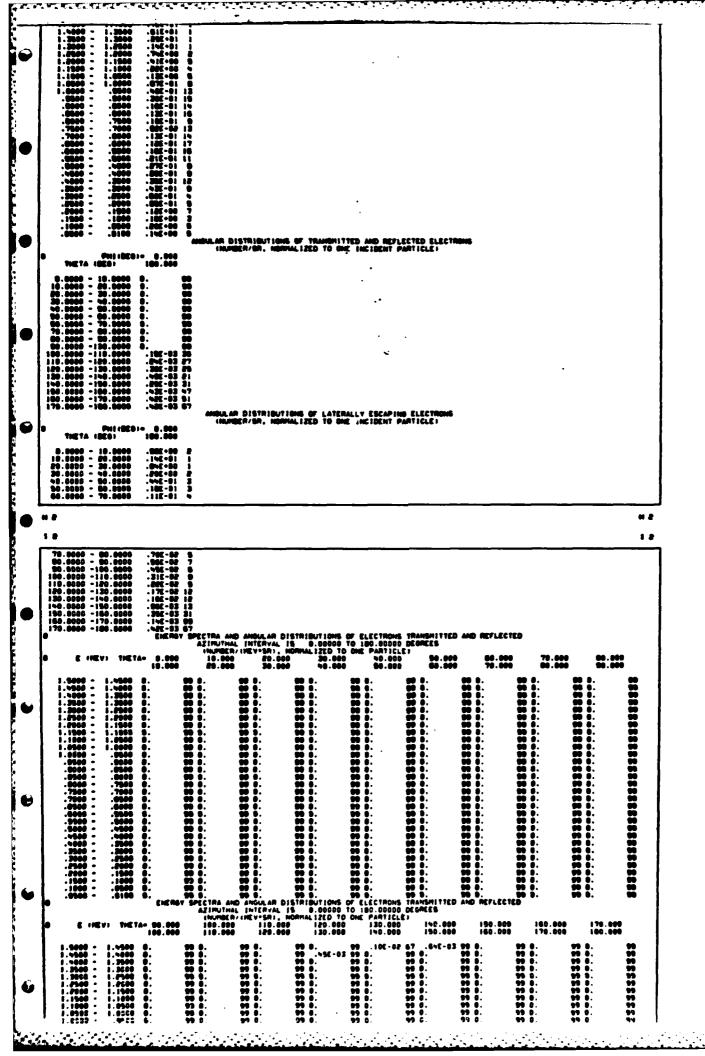


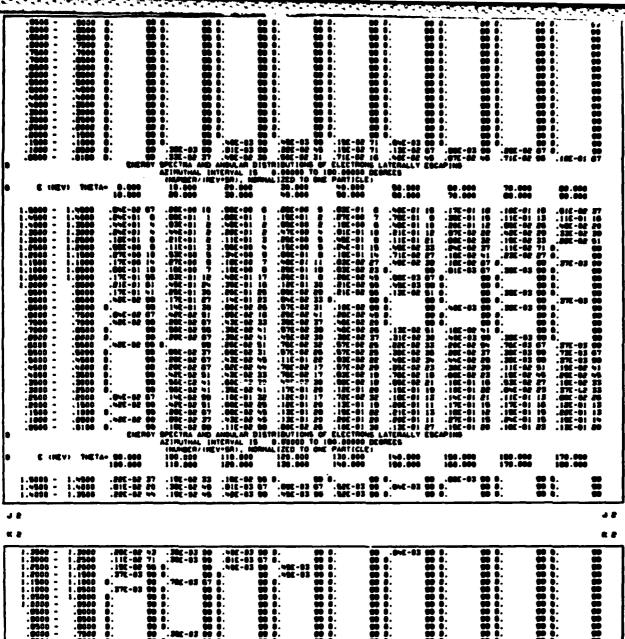
LAMANUS - SOUTHWARL EXPOSITS FOR INTERPOLATION

IN HARM SECTION CHEMPY DIVISION DISTRIBUTION (LEAD)

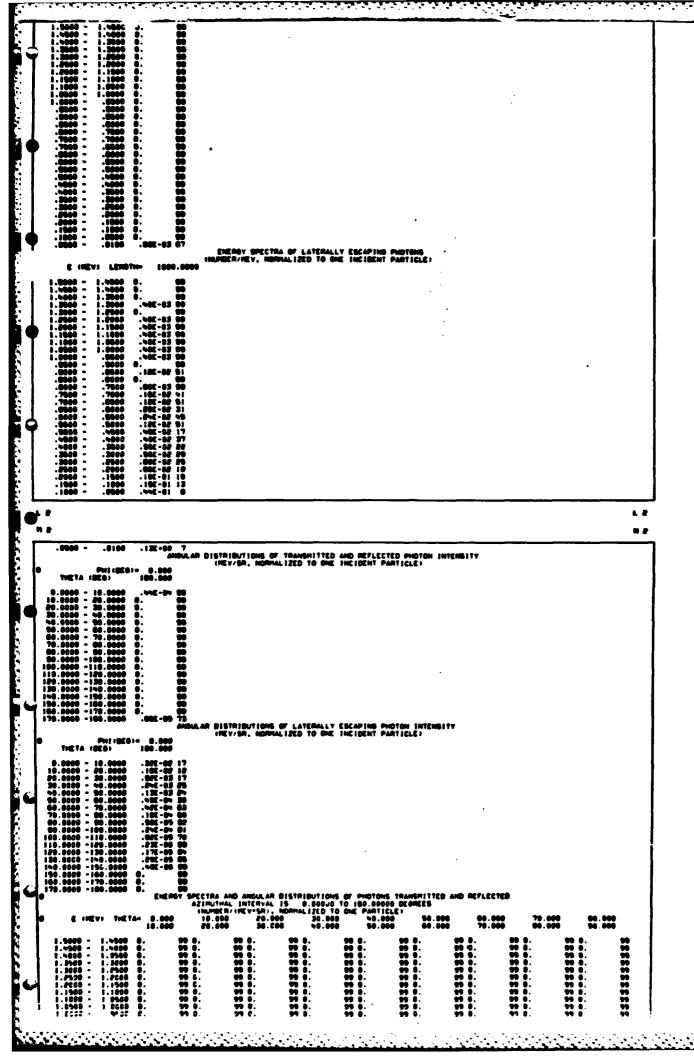
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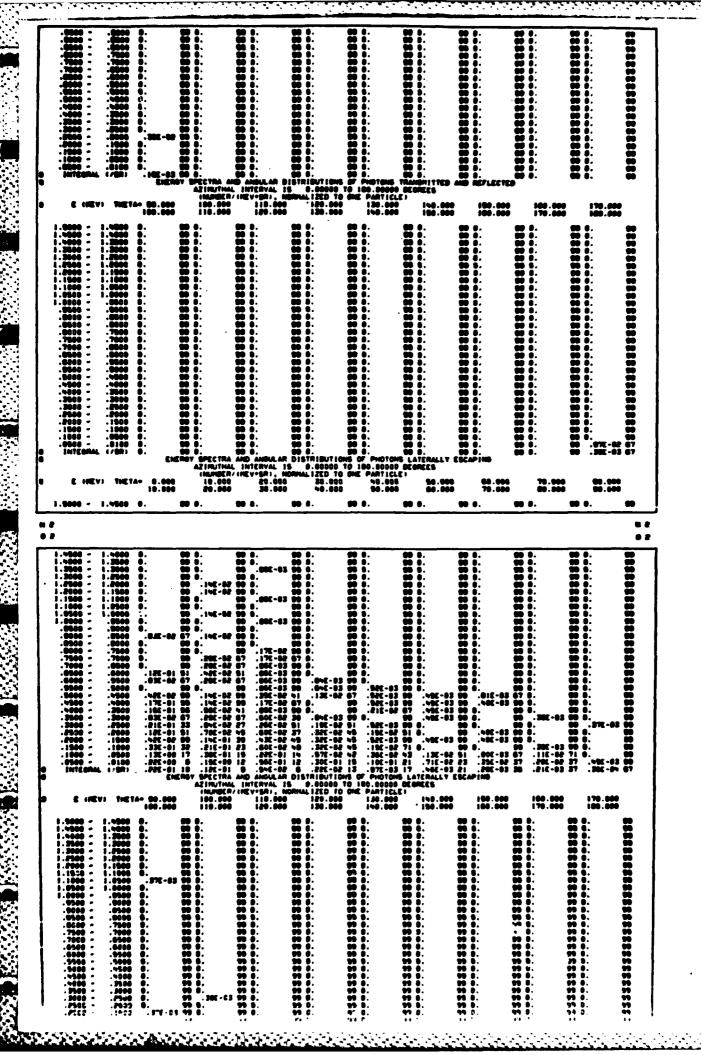


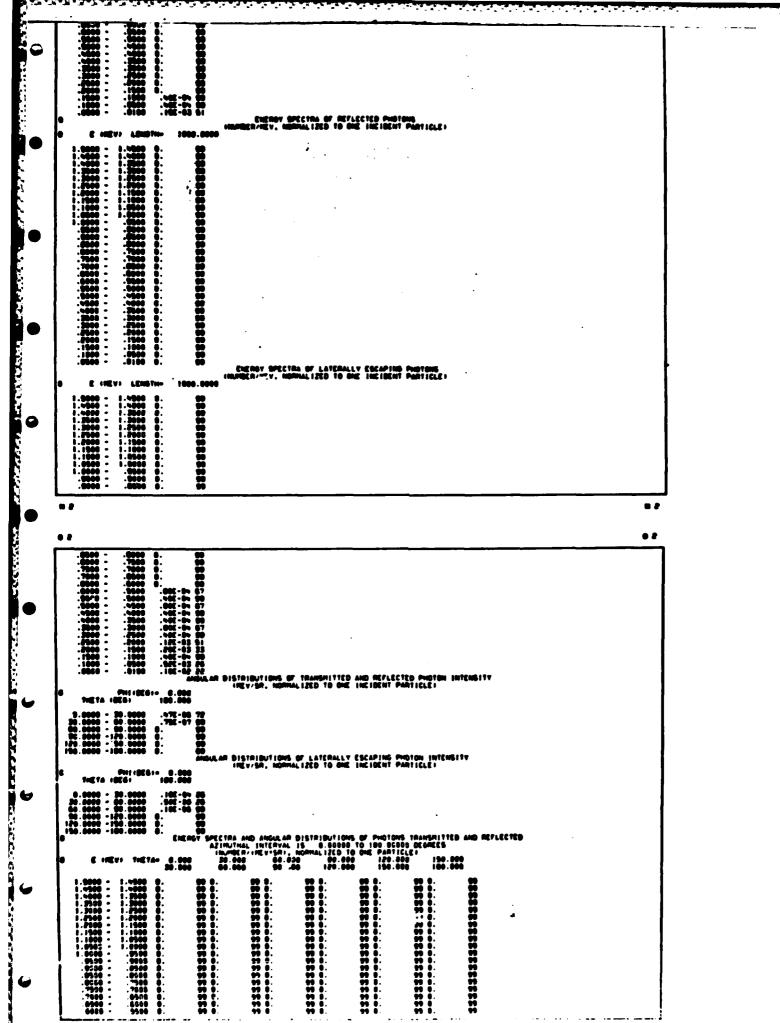




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